The Education Digest

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MEMBER

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THE EDUCATION DIGEST

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Volume XII MAY, 1947 Number 9

The Imperative Needs of Secondary-School Youth

COMMITTEE ON CURRICULUM PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT

Bulletin of the NASSP

A report of the Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Will French, Teachers College, Columbia University, chairman. Reported from the Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, *XXXI (March, 1947), 164 pp.*

IMPERATIVE NEED NUMBER 1

All youth need to develop salable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations. The needs of the youth and the community as well as the demands of industry should be considered in determining the purposes of a work program. In a school which recognizes this need:

a) The curriculum provides experiences to help students understand the world at work. Pupils in their preparation for citizenship need to be informed on problems of labor-agriculture-industrial relations; on requirements of various occupations; on skills, attitudes, and work habits essential for success.

b) Students who must go to work on completion of high school are able to develop salable skills through the study of vocational subjects and through cooperative part-time work programs.

c) School and community-service projects enable students to know their community, to learn to work effectively with others, and to gain satisfaction from contributing to the welfare of the group.

d) Part-time, Saturday, and summer jobs, well supervised, give students opportunities to become productive participants in economic life.

e) The school encourages parents to give their boys and girls work experience in the home.

f) An adequate guidance program enables each student to discover his needs, abilities, and interests in relation to employment and vocation demands.

g) The work-experience pro-

gram is a recognized and accredited part of the school.

IMPERATIVE NEED NUMBER 2

All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness. Some of the evidences of a good program are:

a) Site, equipment, plant, and personnel illustrate concretely to the students that the school and community recognize the importance of health and physical fitness.

b) Students use easily available medical and dental services for examination and treatment.

c) The students make better physical growth and adopt better standards of diet because the cafeteria makes the supplying of proper foods—well prepared—and the inculcation of good habits of diet its major concern.

d) Students receive instruction designed to establish good health attitudes, habits, and understandings.

e) Students participate in physical activities which create interest and develop a satisfying degree of competence in games and sports and other recreational activities.

f) The students learn through participation to plan, conduct, and evaluate the school's and community's programs for maintaining and developing good health and physical fitness.

IMPERATIVE NEED NUMBER 3

All youth need to understand the rights and duties of a citizen of a democratic society and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state, nation, and world. The best preparation for this lies in the richness of the democratic life of the secondary school of which they are members. In good schools:

a) All pupils will feel that they "belong" and that they are working partners with the faculty in attaining mutually accepted goals.

b) All pupils have opportunity to achieve "status" with their fellow students through demonstrated competence and personal worth regardless of socio-economic status, race, or religious belief.

c) In schools where pupils are becoming competent members of a democratic society, pupils use the democratic procedures of elected officers, representative councils, and delegated responsibility for carrying on all phases of school life.

d) Through the democratic life of the school and through the curriculum all students will come to understand the structure of government in a democracy and will accept the philosophy upon which it is based.

e) All youth will achieve from their education some common and binding understanding of the society which they will possess in common.

f) Through study and through participation in programs of community and national scope, pupils will increase their awareness and understanding of current issues.

g) Through programs of guidance, pupils will come to under-

stand themselves and will discover avenues through which each can make his own contribution to community and national life.

b) Adults of the community will find in the school opportunities for selfimprovement, integration of community life, and assistance in solving common problems.

IMPERATIVE NEED NUMBER 4

All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life. In a school program which gives attention to family living:

a) Pupils participate in a wide variety of coeducational activities to establish relations which will lead to intelligent selection of mates and to living happily with them.

b) Pupils come to understand the functions of the family, the significance of family solidarity, and the mutual responsibilities of husband, wife, and other members of the family.

c) Pupils acquire and use skills and understandings related to budgeting, decorating and furnishing the home, feeding and clothing the household, and esthetic standards of living.

d) Pupils investigate under guidance the personal and social problems which concern them in growing up and in establishing new relationships with members of the opposite sex.

e) Pupils investigate factors in the community which affect family living. They visit and secure information from family welfare agencies; they visit the juvenile court and other governmental agencies. They are aware of the influence of the community on the home and the contributions which homes make to the community.

IMPERATIVE NEED NUMBER 5

All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts. In a school which fosters these understandings:

a) Students look forward with keen anticipation to life on the highest standard they are capable of achieving. Their positive philosophy of a good life assumes as a matter of course that the goals will be reached only through hard work, good management, and a certain amount of selfdenial. Yet it stands in vivid contrast to any philosophy of consumer education which emphasizes penurious penny pinching and a niggardly approach to life's joys.

b) Students handle with ease and competence the problems of shopping and dealing in a large and complex market place.

c) Students manage their personal financial affairs competently and wisely.

d) Students reveal a wholesome idealism in their personal dealings as consumers.

e) Students understand the economic system and the business system and are disposed to participate

in maintaining and improving both, using not only their economic power as consumers but also their political power as citizens toward this end.

f) Students develop a discriminating sense of values and a self-consistent philosophy and apply them in their everyday affairs.

g) The school places single units, or a cluster of units, pulling together and focused on a specific consumer problem, at several points in the general curriculum. Each course or department makes a distinctive contribution related to its own regular work.

IMPERATIVE NEED NUMBER 6

All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man. In schools whose primary purpose in science is to enable the pupil to have a greater awareness of the world and his relationship to it:

a) Youth will state problems, form generalizations, make judgments, think critically, prove or disprove beliefs, and change their minds as the evidence dictates.

b) Pupils will develop reasonable explanations for body changes, for natural phenomena and daily happenings, and by removing fear and superstition will have confidence in themselves and will use their knowledge of scientific practices in their daily living.

c) Each pupil will come to understand the influence of science on his home and environment and on his own personal growth and development.

d) Youth will develop special abilities, hobbies, and interests, conduct individual research, and some will pursue further study to deepen their understanding of science.

e) The school will provide first-hand contacts with the physical resources of the community, with rich laboratory facilities, and with visual, auditory, and physical aids to learning about natural phenomena, inventions, processes, and raw materials.

f) Youth will understand the relation between scientific changes and the vocations, the amount and use of leisure, and the changing standards of living and world peace.

IMPERATIVE NEED NUMBER 7

All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature. In schools which attempt to fill this need:

a) Students become increasingly aware, through courses in which the discovery of special aptitudes is the chief objective and through opportunities for exhibition of work to other classes, etc., of their ability to respond and of their own capacities for creative work.

b) Students develop their capacity for growth in these areas through plays, through work on the school paper, through participation in music and art activities.

c) The school seizes on opportunities to include esthetic instruc-

tion wherever they chance to appear.

d) The organization of the program aids in the development of students' appreciation of beauty by allowing each student to indulge in art and music experiences insofar as he is not prevented by other pressures from doing so.

e) The school evalutes the growth of the capacity of its students to appreciate beauty. In the main the question is as to three kinds of outcomes: the current emotional response, the understandings, and the improvement in taste.

IMPERATIVE NEED NUMBER 8

All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful. In schools which help pupils solve the problem of leisure:

a) Students explore, both in class and extracurricular activities, a wide range of leisure-time pursuits and their own potential interest in and aptitude for those pursuits.

b) The student learns from his experiences in health, science, social studies, and extracurricular recreations the value of the optimum use of leisure time.

c) Students develop skills and other forms of ability in leisure-time occupations to a degree which promotes enjoyment and profit.

d) Students develop a respect for, and learn methods of promoting safety in leisure-time pursuits.

e) The school offers the student instruction and practice in the active duties of citizenship which are normally discharged at this time.

f) School plant and equipment promote effective instruction in the use of leisure time, e. g., the Student Council, the publications, and the dramatics organizations are provided with rooms adapted to their purpose; the music room is large, etc.

g) The daily schedule gives time for the leisure program, the competence of teachers in leisure pursuits is taken into consideration in selecting teachers, teacher time is made available.

IMPERATIVE NEED NUMBER 9

All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work cooperatively with others. In schools which recognize this need:

a) Pupils learn to evaluate all points of view from the standpoint of common good.

b) Students plan and work cooperatively together to achieve group decisions.

c) Pupils achieve individual status that will command others' respect. From a broad program, student selection of an activity with personal challenge affords opportunity for achieving selfesteem and recognition by others.

d) Close cooperation of school with home promotes optimum growth in social responsibility.

e) Experiences of planning and carrying forward the shared life in

the democratic school, the home, and the community make pupils able and disposed to make their own contribution to group living.

f) Pupils should come out of school with a set of values to which they refer all of their daily decisions.

IMPERATIVE NEED NUMBER 10

All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding. Every teacher must feel a definite responsibility in this total program, the school must teach these various skills directly and purposefully, and there must be a constant program of evaluation. Where the school attempts to supply this need:

a) In all classes youth develop methods of solving problems, using discussion and different points of view to develop rational thinking.

b) Students should discuss clearly and effectively issues and problems, choosing appropriate means of expression and expressing correctly and convincingly their thoughts.

c) Youth use many means for collecting, organizing, and presenting ideas and secure content for thought and expression from all areas of human experience.

d) Youth turn to reading as a source for information, leisure, and personal development.

e) Youth should develop taste and discrimination in communication with others.

f) The school constantly relates instruction in basic skills to personal abilities, growth, and development; to modern usage; and to vocational and general needs.

To the Rescue . . . .

ALTHOUGH the new school building at Miquon, Pensylvania, is not the first ever to be constructed by parents, it doubtless is the first structure incorporating modern facilities built by such volunteer labor as lawyers, doctors, businessmen, and housewives.

When a contractor told the schoolboard it would be impossible to promise completion of an addition to the school by September, the 70 parents of the district held a conference and promised to scout for materials and then serve as volunteer workers in the actual work of carpentering, digging, painting, and wiring. After many weekends of hot summer toil the parents, under the supervision of professional carpenters, plumbers, and an architect, had built a one-story 15-room school of modern design. The parents put up shelves, erected partitions, did all the interior finishing and painting, and laid the roof sheathing. Much of the skilled labor was contracted, of course.

S.472 Should Be Enacted

R. B. MARSTON

In the Journal of the NEA

THE purpose of S.472, introduced by Senator Robert A. Taft, is to authorize appropriations to assist the states and territories in financing "a minimum foundation school program of public elementary and public secondary schools, and in reducing the inequalities of educational opportunities. . . . for the common welfare."

Chief provisions of the bill include:

1. Federal aid to assist the states, where needed, to finance a $40-floor program per pupil in average daily attendance, excluding expenditures for interest, capital outlay, and debt retirement.

2. Distribution of funds to the states in direct proportion to need and effort, and in inverse proportion to financial ability.

3. The bill authorizes $150,000,000 the first year, $200,000,000 the second, and thereafter $250,000,000 per year. The number of states eligible for benefits will vary as economic conditions change.

4. Each minority racial group in each state is assured a proportion of federal funds in an amount *not less than* the population ratio each minority racial group in the state bears to the state's total population. The $40-floor program applies uniformly.

5. The bill safeguards state educational controls in three ways: (*a*) It makes no transfer of state educational controls to the federal government. (*b*) It specifically and clearly prohibits the exercise of educational controls by any federal agency, officer, or other representative. (*c*) It prohibits any agreement between any state and federal officials which would in effect shift any measure of educational control whatsoever from the states to the federal government. The right of the states to operate separate schools for separate racial groups is, as now, reserved to the states.

6. Aid authorized by the act must supplement and not be substituted for state and local school dollars.

7. Only those schools which are supported within a state by state and local taxes can benefit under the act.

The aid authorized by the act must go to meet current operating costs. Approximately 75 percent of the $250,000,000 authorization will be used to improve teachers' salaries.

S.472, when enacted, will put into practice on a national basis the principle of equalizing educational opportunity which has here-

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tofore been effectively used by many of our states.

In its provisions for unimpaired state control, for precise and defensible methods of alloting aid to the states, for guarantees of a "just and equitable distribution" of support for schools operated for separate minority racial groups, and for encouragement of maximum local and state effort, the pending bill has been pronounced by a number of outstanding students of American public education as the best that has ever been offered in Congress.

While outstanding in terms of its principles, the bill was described by Senator Taft as "a humble beginning" in point of the $40 minimum guaranteed level prescribed by the act.

The $40 program will cost $250,000,000 per year. The cost of a $45 program is $326,000,000; of a $60 program, $674,000,000.

The $60 program, or one considerably higher, is desirable in the light of prevailing acute conditions in education, even after the states and localities have greatly increased their effort.

However, the bill does not aim at this higher goal, in view of the fact that the 80th Congress has set for one of its chief goals a balanced national budget. To achieve this goal and at the same time meet critical issues in the fields of health, education, and housing, Congress will be forced to reduce spending in some areas by large amounts in order to increase authorizations by modest sums in others. The alternative is increased taxes, a purpose that runs directly counter to an announced policy of tax reduction by the Congress.

The shocking shortage of qualified teachers in the nation undermines the common welfare and, unless changed, will relegate our country to a second-rate power in the world.

Public interest is aroused. The press and radio are rendering great service in disseminating information.

Within the field of teaching, the most urgent need is for local, state, and national education associations to take more vigorous action than ever before.

Not only must local school leaders know the need and the solution; they must inform their communities, consolidate public opinion, and see to it that such opinion is channeled quickly and clearly to their senators and Congressmen.

Short of such action on the part of locals throughout the nation, the prospects for needed legislation will be gravely imperiled.

Junior PAC

LAST election day the kids of Butler, Pa., banded together and tacked near the polls scrawled signs reading: "Us kids can't vote for the swimming pools. So we ask you to vote for us." The bond issue authorizing the pools was passed.

This Business of Readability

JEANNE S. CHALL

In the Educational Research Bulletin

THE majority of the American population still does not possess the basic information necessary for effective living, although millions of books, pamphlets, and articles have been printed on health, consumer education, and citizenship. The reason is that most of the books on the important facts of life are so difficult that only people with some college education can understand them. The problem hinges on the availability of books which are readable by all.

The problem of readability has been the subject of experimentation and discussion for years. The first studies were undertaken to find some objective measure of determining the relative ease and difficulty of various textbooks. These studies were aided by the publication, in 1921, of Thorndike's *Teacher's Word Book*, which gives a measure of relative frequency of appearance of 10,000 words in a variety of materials.

Lively and Pressey conducted one of the first experiments to find the elements that made for difficulty in reading materials. Their measurement merely arranged different books in relation to one another in terms of vocabulary difficulty. Dolch also measured vocabulary difficulty, but instead of the frequency rating of the Thorndike list, he used the combined frequency rating which the word

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received when he combined several extensive word counts made by other persons with those he had made.

It was not until Vogel and Washburne produced their Winnetka formula in 1938 that a formula was created which related elements of difficulty in written materials to specific reading levels. With their Winnetka formula it was possible to predict the grade level at which certain books could be read and understood. These investigators were also the first to study scientifically the influence of sentence structure on reading difficulty.

In 1935, the most ambitious and comprehensive study in readability was published by Gray and Leary under the title, *What Makes a Book Readable.* They used a variety of subjects, both fiction and nonfiction, looking for stumbling blocks that make for difficulty among readers of limited ability. About 80 elements of difficulty were compiled. The 44 which lent themselves to statistical analysis were correlated with the criterion

of difficulty. They arrived at a formula using five variables: number of different hard words; number of first-, second-, and third-person pronouns; percentage of different words; average sentence length in words; and number of prepositional phrases.

Lorge tested these five variables against the McCall-Crabbs Standard Test Lessons in Reading, a series of children's readings already graded on the basis of comprehension of questions at the end of each passage. He arrived at a formula using only three elements—average sentence length; number of different hard words; and number of prepositional phrases.

In 1943, Rudolf Flesch found that these formulas did not differentiate well between levels of difficulty for adult readers of better than limited ability. On the basis of judgment, he divided magazines into five levels of difficulty. Relating the variables used by Lorge and two of his own, he found that his two variables and sentence length showed the closest relationship with his criterion of magazine levels. To construct a formula which would incorporate a count of these variables, he used the McCall-Crabbs Standard Tests. His final formula included the variables of average sentence length; number of affixed morphemes (prefixes, inflectional endings, and the like); and the number of personal references.

The search for an adequate criterion of difficulty is not over. The best so far has been the McCall-Crabbs lessons, but this series is based on children's reading. Can we use it to predict the difficulty of adult materials?

The search for the variables that contribute to reading difficulty is not ended either. The variables so far have been a measure of the structure of the text—vocabulary load, sentence structure, and so on. Some formulas have used a measure of human interest.

These elements have been found to be good indexes of difficulty from the third- to seventh-grade levels. Flesch's experiment with magazines was an attempt to get at those elements which contribute to difficulty at the upper levels. Wide testing is needed to determine whether his variables are better predictors at the upper levels of difficulty than the previously discovered formulas.

Recently the Curriculum Division used the Flesch formula to analyze books on philosophy. Although several of these would fall within the comprehension of tenth-graders, according to the prediction of his formula, it is doubtful whether tenth-grade pupils could understand the difficult concepts they contained. This underestimation of difficulty probably resulted from the failure of his formula to account for abstract meanings of such simply constructed words as *good, value, the good life,* etc.

The Idea Analysis Technique, developed by Morriss and Holversen, has been an attempt at meas-

uring the abstractness or concreteness of words used in a particular context, but their count has not been incorporated in any of the major formulas. Perhaps, when tested against a criterion of difficulty based on reading materials written for adults, this type of count would become a more significant predictor of difficulty. It is possible, however, that a general formula cannot be applied to all fields with equal reliability.

Since we have not yet found a formula that is equally reliable at all levels of difficulty, what can we do with the ones we already have? Teachers, supervisors, librarians, and group-discussion leaders can make use of the more easily applicable formulas (either the Flesch or Lorge formula) in selecting books and other reading materials. A teacher can determine the average quality and range of reading ability of the group by giving the members an adequate reading test. If this is not feasible, particularly among adults, he can use the last grade reached as an estimate of the ability of the group. He can then analyze several suitable books to determine the reading grade levels, selecting the book that falls within the comprehension of the majority.

Ideally, when a book is shared by an entire group, it should be within the comprehension range of everyone in that group. However, since this is usually impossible because of the wide range of reading abilities in all classes and groups, the book selected should be within the comprehension of at least 75 percent of the group. In order to achieve this, the reading level of the book chosen should be below the average reading ability of the group, depending on the extent to which the poor readers deviate from the average readers. This procedure is recommended only for books which the entire group must read in common. For the abler readers, a wide range of additional materials should be made available.

Writers, too, can make use of these formulas. They can use the population reports of the Bureau of Census to help them approximate the reading ability of their readers.

One major caution must be noted in the use of a readability formula. It should not be considered infallible, but should be used with discrimination and judgment, since it is at best an approximation. Moreover, the user must always keep in mind the interest of the reader and the purpose for which he will read the material.

Actually, these formulas have been used, and with considerable success. The Lorge formula was applied to textbooks used by the Army in teaching illiterates. The results showed that many of these texts required four or more grades of school to be understood. Both the Lorge and Flesch formulas have been used recently by the Extension Service Division of the Department of Agriculture.

Teaching Purpose—A Guide to Film Utilization

FORD L. LEMLER

In the University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin

EFFECTIVE film utilization cannot be described in terms of a rigid pattern of methodology. Instead, techniques and procedures with films are specific or circumstantial in nature, dependent on particular teachers, classes, films, and other varying factors. The most important of these variables is teaching purpose. The functioning of purpose in the following list of suggestions is rather obvious but nonetheless significant.

Before showing the film.—Be thoroughly familiar with the film before using it. Screen it if possible. Study the teacher manual carefully, making notes if necessary. Watch for important scenes, significant action, and learning cues. Note words or terms with which the class may not be familiar. Analyze and evaluate the film content. If the film does not suit your purpose, do not use it. Buy the study guides for your permanent use.

Decide when and why you are going to use the film. Will it best serve to introduce a new activity, to aid in direct instruction, to review material already studied, or a combination of these? What concepts, generalizations, skills, insights, or appreciations will the film assist? Make a list of these particular functions and purposes.

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Pupils must know what to look for. Prepare the class by using some of the following techniques:

1. List on the blackboard a few real and pertinent questions which will be answered in the film.
2. Discuss a brief outline of the film content.
3. Refer to former projects or topics which pertain to the new materials presented in the film.
4. Explain any unusual photographic techniques.
5. Make advance assignments of activities related to the film content.
6. Introduce objects, specimens, models, and other visual materials which will help set the stage for the film showing and build a need for it.

During the showing.—1. Darken your classroom for the projection. The auditorium showing divorces the film from the teaching situation in which it is designed to function. The special projection room has the same disadvantage.

2. Show the film more than once. Experience and experiments prove definitely that the longer observation means greater learning—but each repeated showing must be made as the result of a definite need and purpose.

3. If the film is readily divided into units, use only the part of the film you need.

4. If you wish to talk during the projection of a silent film, prepare short explanatory comments which do not interfere with subtitles. Or else stop the projection for discussion.

5. Turn off the sound if you choose and explain the points you wish to emphasize especially.

6. If your projector has the stop-on-film device and reverse, use them sparingly.

7. Turn off the sound during the second or third showing and ask students, as a review activity, to explain parts of the film.

Follow-up activities.—A film showing is not complete in itself. Give pupils an opportunity for analysis, interpretation, critical thinking, and discussion. Capitalize on the discussion by bringing into focus what the students have derived from the picture and by organizing succeeding study activities.

Give pupils something worthwhile to do. End the film lesson with a test. Supplement it with still pictures. Encourage pupils to build a project around the film. Stimulate independent reading of reference materials listed in the study guide. Use objective tests of the multiple-choice type and completion type to insure active attention and to check pupil observation. Ask students to summarize the film content.

Films are not good or poor in themselves, but only in terms of a job to be done. A teacher may well decide that the film, *Digestion of Foods,* is excellent to help visualize the processes of digestion but that it is definitely poor to help teach the fundamentals of a good diet. Preview is the only satisfactory way of appraising and selecting a picture.

Planning also deals principally with purposes. Specific purposes of the film lessons may take the form of new facts and new ideas, learning cues or bridgeheads of possible interests which can be expanded into full-scale concepts and generalizations. Pupils are interested in details and will find the answers to their specific questions. For instance, in the *Wheat Farmer,* students may want to know what machines the farmer uses, how he knows when it is time to harvest, who helps him in harvesting, and what happens to the crop if there is too much rain. The alert teacher guides these questions into generalizations about the role of power machinery in modern agriculture, the farmer's dependence on weather conditions, and the social problems of the transient worker. Actually, this generalizing function is the teacher's principal contribution in film use.

Nothing in the above scheme of

use would seem to sanction auditorium or large-group showing of basic curriculum films; the showing of four or five different (even related) films during one class period; the use of a teaching film as a reward for good conduct; the showing of a film because it is a new and exciting experience; or any showing of a teaching film disassociated from purposeful classroom activity. Many of these questionable practices are less the result of practical difficulties than of failure to appreciate the purposeful nature of the film.

A common reaction of teachers to this doctrine of effective film use is that they haven't time to use films. These teachers have not realized that the motion picture is a teaching tool to be used in achieving educational objectives. They regard teaching as a highly formalized verbal procedure. And what they mean is that they do not have time to use films and get the "teaching" done, too!

The other determinants of film procedure are worth noting in conclusion. One of these is the class, its past experience, its maturity, and its readiness for the film. Another determining factor is the type of film itself. Procedures with the film, *Molecular Theory of Matter*, a verbally organized visual exposition crowded with concepts and information, would be quite different from procedures with the problem-centered discussion film, *You and Your Family*. However, in a real sense teaching purpose embraces the needs of the class and determines the film to be used. Mindful that teaching purpose is the ultimate guiding principle, any teacher can succeed with a classroom film if he remembers that the film is only his assistant.

FM for Schools

A PLAN to eliminate the cost barrier to noncommercial educational broadcasting by providing colleges throughout the country with small, low-powered FM broadcast transmitters has been proposed to the FCC and the U. S. Office of Education by the General Electric Co.

Under this plans, adult and student educational programs would be encouraged and college students would get actual broadcast experience before graduation. Now the students are trained in such fields as announcing and script-writing, but less than 10 percent of the 400 schools with radio workships have stations in operation.

The diminutive transmitter proposed, which uses no more electricity than a small, three-way lamp, provides a five- or six-mile range and can be enlarged to a full-size educational station when money and personnel are available for expansion.

The Critical Condition of Your Schools and Colleges

HARL R. DOUGLASS

In the Colorado School Journal

THE most serious problem confronting education today is beyond doubt the problem of obtaining qualified teachers—from the kindergarten through the graduate school. Futhermore, the situation is certain to become worse before it can possibly become better. It is estimated that in the fall of 1946 there were fewer than 100,000 individuals of all classes in college preparing for teaching. Not more than 35,000 of these will become available in 1947 and in 1948 and most likely not more than 50,000 in any year before 1955 unless greatly increased numbers decide to prepare for teaching. In normal times, 90,000 teachers are required annually.

Today less than 10 percent of our teachers below college grade are men. A large proportion of these are in administrative positions and do not teach. It is not that men are better teachers than women. The important fact is that young people need to grow up in contact with both feminine and masculine personalities.

Among those teaching in the schools of many states are several thousand incompetent teachers with drab or worse personalities. They are creating in tens of thousands of our boys and girls attitudes that are certain to boost materially the incidence of juvenile delinquency, already at an all-time high, to say nothing of the poor quality of learning resulting from lack of interest and incompetent instruction. In those districts in which the leaders put the welfare of their children above a few dollars a person in taxes, salaries will go up high and quick. The children who live in other districts are to be pitied. For its indifference, through decades to come our country will pay in the form of poor health, crime, industrial inefficiency, and poor quality of homes.

In 1940 the national income was approximately 80 billion dollars and three billion dollars went for public schools. Today the national income is approximately 160 billion dollars, double that of 1940. If six billion dollars were spent on schools, the average teacher's annual salary would be between $3000 and $3500, probably between $4500 and $5000 for men, as compared with an average of about $7000 for engineers, physicians, dentists, and attorneys. It

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would attract into preparation for teaching twice the present number.

Not only must salaries be raised, doubled in many communities, as compared to those of ten years ago, but *a campaign must be launched at once to encourage several hundred thousand high-grade minds and personalities—especially boys—to prepare for teaching.* One need not worry about the financial future for capable, bright young men and women in teaching.

As in the case of other shortages, there is very keen competition for the well-qualified teacher. Already salaries have begun to rise by leaps and bounds in a great many cities. In Minneapolis the new scale is from $2600 to $4500, and in St. Paul from $2400 to $4200. Increases as follows have been given in some of the larger cities: Kansas City, $475 per year, plus normal increments; Denver, $450 to $600; San Francisco, $420 to $840; Washington, D. C., $450 to $550.

In many places, the increases given are to be followed with further increases as soon as tax rates or assessed valuations, or both, can be increased. In a number of states, very large increases in state aid have already been made, e. g., in North Carolina the current annual appropriation is $62,000,000. It is practically certain that the Congress will appropriate from 200 to 300 millions, maybe more, for aid to the poorer states.

In addition, let it not be forgotten that there is agreement among the economists and writers on business conditions that within a few years, maybe within a year, from 8 to 10 million people will be unemployed; and in a major depression 12 to 20 million will be idle. Among these will be millions of young people, always the first to be laid off and the last to be employed or reemployed in a depression. As a result, high-school enrolments will increase materially and still more teachers will be needed. *Among those unemployed millions there will be few teachers.*

In coming years there will not be fewer but many more children to educate. It is estimated that in 1960 there will be in school not less than 5,000,000 more children than were attending school in 1945. This means 200,000 more teachers. Furthermore, membership in teachers' unions has increased so greatly that in the future teachers will be better prepared to urge their needs.

Two things are clearly indicated: (1) Teachers' salaries must be increased in your district unless you want the culls to teach your children. (2) Capable young people, your own children, for example, may wisely be urged to go into teaching if they are interested in service to their country, a good income, and the highest degree of security. Perhaps a third development should be considered at this time: national and state subsidies may be necessary, subsidies in the form of free tuition and scholarships by tens of thousands for promising prospective teachers.

Beloved Teacher

SIDNEY M. KATZ

In the Magazine Digest

Reprinted by special permission from the Magazine Digest, *Toronto, Canada,* XXXIV (April, 1947), 2-9.

THE story of Angelo Patri and Public School 45 in New York starts in 1913, when he assumed the principalship of the school. On his very first visit, he received a taste of the boisterous spirit of his future pupils. The school's roof was being repaired, and as the new principal approached, he was mercilessly pelted with pebbles dipped in fresh tar.

A district survey revealed the magnitude of the job before him. Youthful gangs warred with each other. The police reported numerous cases of gambling, thieving, and vandalism. Angelo Patri was struck by the high incidence of truancy. "The children were bright-eyed, intelligent, and rebellious," he recalls. Obviously, the school was not suited to their needs. As Patri saw it, most of the children were descended from Italian peasants who for centuries had been accustomed to doing things with their hands. Our machine age had robbed them of the opportunity to do this type of creative work which they really loved to do and which was necessary to their personal development.

"If anything was to be accomplished," says Patri, "I knew that I must convince the neighborhood that I was not a kind of policeman but a teacher, anxious to help the youngsters."

He visited the parish priest, the grocers, barbers, soda-fountain proprietors, and social workers; he knocked at hundreds of doors to introduce himself to parents. Then, confident that he knew the background of his new district, he started to change conditions. He proposed that the usual seven periods a day devoted to academic subjects be promptly reduced to four. This would leave the remaining three open so the child could be absolutely free to express himself in some creative field.

Even before the schoolboard was ready to move, an old friend of Patri, Howard Kretz, who was a sculptor, was installed in a small basement "studio" which consisted of a table and a tub of clay. Patri invited another acquaintance, who was a skilled carpenter, to join his staff. Gradually he enlisted a force of two dozen artists and craftsmen who were prepared to teach and encourage youngsters in practically every field.

The program made a big hit with the pupils. The district police captain reported a surprising drop in the number of delinquency cases. Behavior and proficiency in the academic classrooms improved.

For example, there was Antoni DiFilippo, who could hardly speak English and who lived with his family in the attic of a tenement house. Tony's resistance to learning was phenomenal. Acting on a tip from Patri, Antoni wandered down to Howard Kretz's basement studio. He picked up a piece of clay, and his hands worked quickly until he had modeled a man. From then on, when the janitor arrived at eight in the morning, Tony would be waiting at the door. When he left at 6:30 in the evening he would have literally to throw Tony out in order to lock up.

Soon Tony was accompanying the class on visits to the zoo and other places of interest where ideas were garnered for work in the studio. When the boy grew tired of modeling animals, he turned to characters from the classics. But to really understand the figures he was creating, he had to read carefully the books in which they appeared. As a result, he became very proficient in English and history, subjects he had formerly spurned.

Tony won scholarships from Beaux Arts and the Tiffany Foundation. When he was free, the people of the neighborhood chipped in and sent him to France, Italy, and Greece for further study. Eventually Tony turned out some magnificent work and established himself as a ranking American artist.

One 12-year-old boy was always unhappy. Nothing seemed to provoke his interest. Angelo Patri called him into his office one afternoon and the youngster unburdened his heart. His family was so poor that he was forced to live with an unkind uncle much of the time. One thing alone interested the boy—he would like very much to become an actor.

"We'll start a dramatic class right away," said the principal.

The youngster turned out to be the most talented and enthusiastic member of the new class. His disposition improved and he was consistently cheerful. When an interscholastic oratory contest was announced, Patri loaned the boy $5 so he could appear in a store suit. As soon as the boy cashed the $25 check he won, he repaid the loan. The remaining $20 was used to secure further training in dramatics. That is how John Garfield, the actor, got his start.

Hardly a day passed without some child discovering where his real interests lay—a selfdiscovery without any pressure from the teachers. Hardly a home in the Italian colony was untouched by the activities of P. S. 45. Boys and girls would proudly take home the beautiful things they had created.

Patri likes to recall the influence that individual classes had on his students. Many of the boys and girls in the English composition class were anxious to have their works appear in the school paper. They knew, however, that before their ambition could be realized their work would have to possess literary merit and be flawless in

grammar and punctuation. They worked like Trojans. Today almost every New York newspaper has on its staff men and women who once attended P. S. 45's writing classes.

Education is still Patri's chief passion. He still finds time to serve the young people. He writes a syndicated column of advice to adolescents and plans further books that will help parents understand their children.

He thinks that school programs are still too rigid and inflexible. In many schools where handicraft and art subjects have been put on the curriculum, there is not enough choice. Patri is quick to point out that the main purpose of teaching arts is not to turn out skilled craftsmen and artists. It is to help the child grow.

Grade-to-grade promotion, he finds, is unscientific. Readiness to do the job is what counts. The brighter pupils should be given greater opportunities and slow ones should be carefully scrutinized for latent abilities.

The ex-principal recalls a project at P. S. 45 which called for the creation of a large tapestry. There were 40 children working. Some had an IQ of over 140, others were below average.

"On the tapestry job," says Patri, "everyone moved at his own pace. The slow kids received a lift from the bright ones."

In the opinion of Patri, our schools should be staffed with many more teachers. He would have attached to the school teachers with the qualifications of Boy Scout leaders, prepared and equipped to take small groups of children on trips. "There are always a few dozen children in a large school who need a change from their home and school environment. Why wait till summer to give it to them?"

Alumni of P. S. 45 have a special nostalgia for the old school. When Patri was still principal, as many as 10 graduates would drop in on him in a single day. Even today, they seek him out.

Last fall Patri journeyed into New York to attend a birthday party in his honor by former pupils. It took three floors of a large building to hold all the guests. Patri confided that the greatest tribute paid to him occurred before the party when a street-cleaner stopped him on the street. "Remember me?" he'd asked. "Almost 20 years ago I sent you my children. Now one is a lawyer, another an architect, and the youngest a doctor. You did something wonderful, Mr. Patri. Who'd ever think that kids who had an old man like me would ever amount to anything?"

BEST current definition of democracy, according to the *Educator's Washington Dispatch*: "Democracy is a social order in which anyone can do what he pleases and the majority can put a stop to it whenever it pleases."

Driving Instruction—Then and Now

SUBCOMMITTEE ON DRIVING INSTRUCTION

In Let's Teach Driving

IN the early days of the motor car, few who undertook to teach others to drive possessed adequate teaching ability, and in many cases simply passed on to the learner their own poor driving habits. As automobile travel increased it became obvious that improved instruction of a more standardized nature was needed.

Public high schools first gave instruction in driving, mostly confined to theory, as a part of vocational-training courses in automobile mechanics. Soon after 1930, driving instruction had its more definite beginnings in schools throughout the country. A concerted effort on the part of national organizations interested in highway safety to stimulate the teaching of driving and the publication of text materials increased the number of courses given. While in some places driving instruction was set up as a separate course, elsewhere the material was integrated with other subjects. An increasing number of high schools began to include road training in their driving instruction courses at this time.

In 1936, Pennsylvania State College offered the first course ever given to prepare teachers of driving. Concurrent with the development of courses to train teachers of driving was the use of dual-control cars for instructing new drivers. Although wartime restrictions caused a partial retrenchment in the road-training phase of high-school driving instruction, a survey by the National Education Association in 1945 showed that 441 out of 2196 schools were offering some type of driving instruction.

Reported from Let's Teach Driving, *prepared by the Subcommittee on Driving Instruction of the National Commission on Safety Education of the NEA, under the direction of Hanson H. Anderson, Principal of Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis, Indiana. Washington, D. C.: The National Education Association, 1947. Pp. 97-119.*

Of 15 schools stating a cost figure for the course in driving, the median total cost was $27 per pupil per semester. Data available from several sources indicate that a complete semester course, with classroom work and the use of a single car for road training, usually costs not more than $30 per pupil, and frequently much less. Schools using several training cars in a special practice area are able to give the complete course at a cost of less than $10 per pupil.

Several programs are described here to show plans of operation in communities of different sizes.

Programs in large cities.—Lane Technical High School in Chicago has a course consisting of class-

room and road training handled by two instructors.

The classroom instructor accommodates four classes a day, each numbering 30 students. Each class meets in a special classroom 80 minutes a week during an entire semester. Lectures, discussions, and similar learning activities are conducted in a conventionally arranged part of the classroom where many street and highway traffic control signs are displayed. In another part of the room are 30 "dummy" cars, each consisting of a seat, steering wheel, gear-shift lever, and clutch, brake, and accelerator pedals.

With each student seated in a dummy car, the instructor teaches the class to operate the controls of a car and supervises their practice in developing neuromuscular coordination. Each control of each car is wired to operate an electric light when the control is used. The lights are mounted in rows on a master panel board, one row for each car. The instructor can tell at a glance whether the students are handling the controls correctly.

Moving pictures taken from a car traveling through city streets and along highways are sometimes shown and students are taught to control their dummy cars according to changing road and traffic conditions revealed in the film. Students appear to progress more rapidly in the early stages of practice driving if they have had instruction in dummy cars.

After a semester of classroom instruction, students receive road training one double period (80 minutes) per week during half a semester. The road-training instructor accommodates four classes of 15 students a day. Under this arrangement, the 600 who receive classroom instruction one semester are given road training the next.

Road training is given in an enclosed practice area adjacent to the school. During the first period the instructor directs the students to drive around the course in low gear. Riding with each student in turn, the instructor evaluates the student's ability. Each student is then scheduled for additional practice or is permitted to begin solo practice.

The remaining periods are devoted to practice in starting, stopping, steering, driving against opposing traffic and with parallel traffic, starting on a hill, parking, and shifting gears. Because 15 cars are driven on the course each period and the length of the roadway is limited, students do nearly all of their practice in low gear. This procedure has the further advantage of minimizing damage to cars in case one bumps another. In the final period, students usually drive in high gear.

Eleven of the 13 high schools in Cleveland, Ohio, give a semester course for credit in driving. The Cleveland Automobile Club leases to the board of education 11 insured training cars equipped with dual control.

Classroom work is carried on

simultaneously with road training. Using a standard textbook, the students receive over 20 hours of classroom instruction. Road training is provided for four students per period. Each student receives about six hours of behind-the-wheel training and spends approximately 18 hours in the car observing as each of the other three students in the group drives.

Each student pays $3.50 for the course. Money collected belongs to the school and is used for gasoline, storage, maintenance, and other training-car expenses.

The state department of education provides a certificate of proficiency for each student successfully completing the course, and the holder is excused from any type of examination when applying for a driver's license.

Programs in small cities.—The Buckhannon, West Virginia, high school has initiated a full-semester classroom course given by a social-science teacher. This course, open to students in the 11th and 12th grades, meets five times a week. No provision is made at present by the school for road training, but the school has made use of driver-testing equipment supplied by an automobile club and insurance companies.

The course of study, consisting of 11 units in detailed outline form, is an outstanding example of a course developed at the state level with assistance from other state agencies.

In Dubuque, Iowa, the high school, police department, safety council, and automobile club, with active support from local newspapers, have joined forces to conduct a course regularly given in the adult evening school. Students enrolled in day school are allowed to take this evening instruction, with or without credit.

Classwork is handled by an elementary-school supervisor in a weekly meeting lasting from one and a half to two hours. Each group of four has one two-hour period of road training a week, in which each learner spends a half hour at the controls and observes other learners for the remainder. Instructors were selected from bus lines and were given a standard course for teachers of driving.

Three training cars were loaned to the school. The school paid for installing dual control in all three and for operating and upkeep.

A triangular arrangement of streets near the school was barricaded for road-training purposes. Parking stanchions and other devices were used for training, in addition to the regular street signs and markings. Large flood lights were mounted to keep the area sufficiently illuminated.

The Woodland, California, high school has required all seniors (from 125 to 135) to take a classroom course in driving. No road training is offered.

Instead of approaching the subject matter from a limited technological point of view, Woodland high school includes a study

of many sociological problems created by the use of automobiles. Through psycho-physical tests, students learn about human qualifications and limitations for driving. In addition to class discussions and visual aids, students participate in valuable learning experiences such as conducting vehicular and pedestrian surveys and reporting of findings; investigating accident reports and examining accident scenes as a means of understanding causes and preventive measures; participating in conferences on driving with students from other high schools; conducting student assembly programs on driver problems; and preparing publicity material on the program for the school and local papers.

Programs on a state-wide basis. —Delaware high schools offer a course, sponsored by the State Department of Public Instruction, the Delaware Safety Council, and the State Highway Department, consisting of classroom instruction given one period weekly for 30 weeks, and road training in which each student spends an average of four hours at the controls of a training car and an average of four hours observing from the back seat. Materials included a standard textbook in driving, *Delaware Motor Vehicle Laws, Delaware Driver's Manual,* and a number of visual aids. The State Highway Department furnishes cars.

In North Dakota all high-school students are required to pass an examination in driver education with a grade of 70 percent before graduation. The Department of Public Instruction, in conjunction with the state highway patrol, states that only juniors and seniors are eligible and that high schools must give instruction for a minimum of three weeks or 15 class periods. While schools may meet the requirements by providing classroom instruction alone, a few offer actual training at the controls of a car. The department permits individual high schools to organize the course in their own way either in conjunction with other courses or in specially organized classes. No credit is given.

The Department of Public Instruction recommends a basic text, supplementary texts and reference materials, and visual aids. Topics on which examinations are based include: the driver; the car and its maintenance; learning to drive; rules of the road; streets and highways; skills in driving; the pedestrian and the bicyclist; traffic accidents; and North Dakota motor-vehicle regulations. The Department of Public Instruction provides the test questions and requires high schools to send in names of students passing the examination successfully.

"WE give so many marks to a child that we are in danger of leaving no mark on him."—D. M. Shipton, President of the Transvaal Teachers' Association.

What Future Needs Are Revealed by School-Population Studies?

THOMAS C. HOLY

ANY consideration of trends in school population must, of course, take into account trends in total population. Recent total population changes have been characterized by (1) a continuous decrease in the rate of population increase by decades, (2) a gradual reduction in the percentage of the total population found in the 5-to-19 year age group, (3) a rather sharp increase in the proportion of the total population in the 65-and-over group.

The basic factor in the matter of future school population is that of the birth rate. The trend in this has been downward since about the year 1800 when it was about three and a half times as high as in 1930. During the war years there was a sharp increase in the birth rate. Final figures are not yet available for 1946, but they are expected to fall below the 19.7 rate for 1945. The influence of these war years is now being felt in the increased enrolment in the lower elementary grades. However, that increase has not entirely offset the downward trend in total school enrolment during that period. Another factor which apparently has an important effect on the total birth rate is the educational level of the parents — the less education, the larger the family.

Thompson and Whelpton in *Estimates of Future Population of the United States, 1940 to 2000,* predict a total population of approximately 144,000,000 in 1950, an increase of 13,000,000 over the 1940 population. They further predict that the total population will continue to increase at a reduced rate until 1985 when it will reach 161,385,000. Between then and the year 2000, the population is expected to decline about 2,000,000.

Perhaps more important as far as the public schools are concerned is the age distribution. We here are particularly interested in the 5-to-19 year age group. Within that age group, according to Thompson and Whelpton, the peak number between now and the year 2000 will be 1960, after which there will be a continual decline until the year 2000. The figures are based on the assumption of no immigration.

Various methods of predicting school enrolments have been devised and used. Among those are the following: (1) forecasting school enrolment from total popu-

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lation; (2) forecasting by analysis, (3) forecasting by mathematical techniques; (4) the Bell Telephone Company method, in which the rate of increase in total population growth is assumed to apply to increases in school enrolment; (5) multiple factor method, which assumes that a fundamental relationship exists between certain economic factors and school enrolment; (6) forecasting by analogy.

In 1932, L. M. Chamberlain and A. B. Crawford made a study of accuracy of these methods and found there was a high degree of error in all of them, some, of course, being more accurate than others.

Since the predicting of population for whom school accommodations must be provided is absolutely essential in projecting the school-building needs, we in the Bureau of Educational Research are keeping a careful check on the accuracy of the method we now use. Incidentally, our checks to date show our estimates to be a little high. Briefly, the method is as follows:

1. Take the actual number of births in the school district between 1934 through 1946. Those born in the years 1934 to 1940 would be six years old in the years 1940 to 1946 and should, therefore, be enrolled in schools during those years for which actual enrolments are now known. For each of these years calculate the percent of survivorship between the number of births and the enrolment in first grade for the known years, which in this case would be 1940 to 1946. Take the average of the percentages for the known years and apply it to the actual number of births which occurred during 1940 to 1946 to get the estimated enrolments in the first grade for the years 1946 to 1952 during which time those children born between 1940 and 1946 would enter school.

2. Calculate the percentage of survivorship from grade one to grade two and so on and apply those to the known figures to get estimates in the years immediately ahead. Children born during 1940 through 1946 will affect the total school enrolment 12 years beyond the latest date of entry, that is, to the year 1964.

Even though the method described above were 100 percent accurate, the problem is further complicated by two factors:

1. Buildings built within the next few years will be in use in the year 2000 and several years thereafter.

2. If the birth rate declines in the years immediately ahead as expected, then school enrolments should begin to decline about the year 1965 unless the decline resulting from a decreasing number of births would be offset by a higher proportion of children of school age being enrolled in school. That is related to the compulsory age laws and the effectiveness of the enforcement of such laws.

Relating the points made to

future needs in elementary and secondary schools, the following appear most pertinent:

1. The total population of the United States will continue to increase for the next 30 to 40 years.

2. Despite this anticipated increase, the maximum number in the school-age group will be reached by 1960, after which there will be a steady decline.

3. Because of the high birth rates during 1940-1946, elementary-school enrolment may be expected to increase, reaching its peak around 1960 when those born around 1946 will be 14 years of age.

4. The lowest birth rates in the history of the nation occurred in 1933 through 1936. Children born then will be entering high school between 1947 and 1951. It is expected there will be further decline in high-school enrolment continuing until about 1955, when it should be arrested by the entrance into high school of the children born during 1940 through 1946. This may be offset to some degree by getting a larger proportion of children of high-school age enrolled.

5. Between 1960 and 1975, children born during the high birth-rate years of 1940 through 1946 will themselves be married and bearing children, so an increase in the birth rate is expected then.

6. Equally as important as the total number of children is their distribution nationally and within a given school district. Large cities, in order to maintain themselves, must have a continuous influx of population from the rural sections. At present there seems to be a revival of the decentralization of industry movement which, if undertaken on any large scale, will have a far-reaching effect on present large industrial centers.

7. Only 35 percent of the families living in school districts involved in a recent study had children in the public schools. This percentage was lowest in the cities and highest in the rural districts. If these two out of every three families who have no direct contact with the schools are to be acquainted with the school's program and give it their support, the program must be so expanded as to include them within its scope of influence.

8. Building programs now being developed should not be designed to provide the full capacity expected during the peak enrolment. If this is done and the predictions materialize, then for at least two-thirds of the lifetime of the buildings they will not be fully utilized. We think that it is better to continue in service for the next 10 or 15 years buildings which under normal circumstances ought to be replaced at the earliest time.

9. Do not overbuild. If you do, little can be done but go ahead and pay for the buildings and explain as best you can how it happened. If buildings are properly planned and you underbuild, then you can always add to them.

Problems of the Textbook Publishers

LLOYD F. GEHRES

In the Nebraska Educational Journal

THE problems of textbook publishers fall into half a dozen categories, any one of which may cause a master headache.

First comes the big administrative problem which must be met by the head of the company when he faces the stockholders at the annual meeting. He must explain why the ledger balances are in red ink when sales have reached the greatest dollar volume in the history of the company. The cost of manufacturing a book has increased more than 40 percent since 1942. Increases in textbook prices, where prices could be increased, have amounted to 12 percent. This differential has more than wiped out the profits in many texts which were originally priced to compete in a viciously competitive market.

The second monumental problem is production and how to get it. Paper procurement at any price is driving many a textbook publisher to distraction. As this was written, a local production manager received a message from a large printing contractor which informed him that three publishers had been so unsuccessful in their quest for paper that they were forced to cancel their press schedules.

Early in 1946 textbook publishers were hopefully predicting that paper production would be over the "hump" by June of 1947. The roseate dream is being rudely shattered. We hear rumors which may be well-founded reports: that certain large paper mills which produce workbook paper will close for remodeling; that certain mills will entirely eliminate certain high-grade styles of paper while other mills will drastically reduce manufacture of similar types; that the production of wood pulp cannot possibly overtake demands for another 18 months.

Lloyd F. Gehres is Vice President of the John C. Winston Company. Reported from the Nebraska Educational Journal, *XXVII (March, 1947), 66.*

To procure wood pulp to make book paper, mills must compete with other types of publishers and with unrelated industries. Here the textbook publisher becomes entangled with costs again. For instance, a producer of nylon can afford to pay more for wood pulp than can a paper manufacturer who sells to a publisher who is bound with unbreakable sales contracts.

If a textbook publisher succeeds in procuring paper and is fortunate in scheduling press time, he may get his textbooks printed and sewed only to have them delayed for weeks in the bindery by lack of binder's board. There were periods in January, 1947, when a production manager had to be a master

magician to furnish his binderies sufficient boards to maintain a steady flow of books.

Textbook publishers are "sweating it out" 24 hours a day in their attempt to meet demands for textbooks. The fact that with a school enrolment of 24,982,000 pupils, publishers are short only 12,000,000 books—an average of half a book per pupil—is "proof positive" that magnificent results have been achieved.

The number three problem is the copyright bugaboo. Textbook publishers may thank themselves for teaching teachers to look at the copyright page before examining any other part of the text. This custom has progressed to such an inane point that books copyrighted in December, 1942, are being automatically and arbitrarily eliminated from consideration in 1947 adoptions as being "five years old," while books copyrighted in January, 1943, less than one month later, remain in competition because they are only four years old.

Committees which set up a date standard often deprive themselves of the recognized top-ranking textbooks because the publisher has been unable to find a composing room with time to change four or five pages per book, or because the publisher was unable to print an edition flaunting a late copyright. The value of the alterations which justify a new copyright is seldom questioned by a committee.

What to publish is the fourth problem. It is generally agreed that 1947 is going to be a "geography year." Purchase of new geographies was curtailed during the war. Publishers have striven to complete new sets of geographies, but grade six always bobs up to plague them. Peace treaties remain unsigned. Boundaries in Europe and Asia are still guesswork. At least six months will be required to make new maps, new graphs, and new statistical tables after all treaties have been signed.

Problem five is major or minor, depending on the type of texts the publisher emits. If he is a publisher of social-science texts, he is beset by witch-hunters seeking to find alleged communistic doctrines in his books. Racial groups pore over his works to discover slighting references or lower-case letters when they demand upper-case initials. Business groups are giving closer scrutiny to texts in the commercial field to forestall derogatory remarks which have caused heated arguments in former years. The textbook publisher must be ever alert for reverberations from these groups.

ABOUT two out of three American high-school students prefer jobs that do not require membership in a labor union, according to a recent Institute of Public Opinion Poll sponsored by *Scholastic Magazines*.

The Continuing Crisis in Education

FRANK W. HUBBARD

In the Massachusetts Teacher

IN the years just prior to 1940 most people did not know nor care about the condition of the public elementary and secondary schools in the United States. Then came the "defense" period just before the war, which set a nation-wide scramble in motion. By 1944-45 more than a third of the competent teachers employed in 1940-41 had left teaching. Thousands of these were in the armed forces; some had been removed by retirement and death. A major part, however, had left for higher paying positions.

The effect of present conditions on the educational opportunities of children is one of the major losses. Taking into account the unfilled positions and the number of emergency teachers, the quality losses must have seriously affected at least two million pupils. This estimate does not take into account the quality losses resulting from overcrowded classes and lower teacher morale brought about by low salaries and turnover in teaching staffs.

The outlook for an increased teacher supply is still not clear. It appears that although liberal-arts colleges are overwhelmed with students, teachers colleges are just approaching prewar enrolments. Many of these new students in teachers colleges are only an overflow from the liberal-arts colleges and are not persons actively interested in teaching.

Frank W. Hubbard is Director of the Research Division of the National Education Association. Reported from the Massachusetts Teacher, *XXVI (January, 1947), 10–12.*

Schools of education in universities are reporting larger enrolments than in prewar years. Many of these advanced students, however, are teachers who are seeking special training or graduate degrees. Their reentrance into teaching in 1947-48 will take up some of the *quality* shortage, particularly in the large cities. It is not believed that the number will greatly improve the teacher shortage which continues to be numerically large in rural areas and small towns.

The brightest spots in the total picture are to be found in the efforts to improve salary schedules. Most of the steps forward have been taken in the large cities where a distinct movement is afoot to adopt salary schedules with $2000 to $2400 minimums and $4000 to $4500 maximums.

Never before in the history of public education has there been such widespread knowledge of the crisis in public education. Citizens generally have been informed through magazine articles, news reports, feature articles, advertisements, radio programs, and confer-

ences. The situation is hopeful from the angle of interest and purpose. What is still lacking in many areas are clear-cut goals and positive action.

Before goals are stated and action initiated, some consideration should be given to the factors contributing to the present crisis:

1. *For many years teaching has been an underpaid professional service.*

2. *The public's recognition of the importance of teaching has not been enough to make teaching attractive.*

3. *Unsatisfactory working conditions have driven many teachers from the profession.*—Lack of tenure protection, restrictive contracts and board rules, inadequate retirement guarantees, discrimination against married women, salary differentials on the basis of sex, lack of democracy in administration and supervision, and inadequate housing—these are among the conditions that many teachers have sought to escape through transfers and resignations.

4. *Inadequacy of professional standards has affected teacher morale and depressed the public's attitude.*—Although state certification standards have risen steadily since the 1920's, they have been developed largely on the theory that the accumulation of credits produced well-qualified teachers. Credits and courses are obviously necessary, but they must be combined with exacting selection procedures prior to preparation, at the time of certification, on first appointment, and during a probationary period of employment. The presence in teaching of poorly qualified individuals is a constant barrier to higher salaries and tenure protection.

5. *Lack of comprehensive programs of recruitment and teacher education constantly undermine professional standards.*—Few states have any figures as to the number and types of new teachers needed each year or any comprehensive plan whereby the demand for new teachers and the institutions providing the supply are brought into any effective cooperative relationship. As a result, in times of depression there is an oversupply of teachers with standard certifications; in "boom" times the supply of new teachers is often short.

Many organizations have begun programs designed to meet the foregoing problems. Whether or not there will be appropriate action and complete "follow-through" in all communities and states is a major question. Much depends now on local boards, state legislatures, and groups of laymen, such as parent-teacher associations. Among the specific steps are:

A SHORT-TIME PROGRAM

1. *School budgets.*—Scrutiny and revision of local budgets to make sure that reasonable proportions are allocated to instructional costs, particularly teachers' salaries.

2. *Salary schedules.*—Adoption of clear-cut salary schedules, preferably of the preparation type

(single salary) with ranges from $2000-$4000 or $2400-$5000, depending on potential revenue resources.

3. *Local taxes.*—Raising of millage rates or assessments so as to make the property tax more productive.

4. *Board rules.*—Revision of local board rules and contracts to remove all unnecessary personal restrictions and conditions which impede the employment and retention of competent teachers.

5. *Recruitment.*—Development of plans designed to encourage the competent and qualified former teachers to return to the profession.

6. *Democracy.*—Provide opportunities for teacher participation and sharing in the planning and development of the professional activities in school systems.

A LONG-TIME PROGRAM

1. *State legislation.*—Enactment of legislation to increase tax bases, to provide sound systems of school revenue, to increase present state school allotments, and to improve the administration of state finance systems.

2. *State legislation affecting local revenues.*—Revisions of tax limitations and exemptions which restrict operation of the property tax; provision for scientific assessment and sound administrative procedures; development of efficient local school administrative units.

3. *State legislation affecting personnel.*—Adoption or revision of state tenure and retirement laws so as to protect the status of teachers; adoption of minimum-salary laws and provisions for leaves of absence; revision and improvement of state certification standards.

4. *Teacher education.*—Revision and enrichment of preservice teacher education; integration of teacher education with systematic state and local surveys of teacher supply and demand; provision for recruitment of competent young people; promotion of inservice education programs.

5. *Build public esteem.*—Enlistment of the cooperation of all lay groups in increasing the free participation of the teacher's work in building a nation of free men.

6. *Eternal vigilance.*—Continuous study and adaptation of state legislation and local administration to keep finance and teacher-personnel procedures abreast of the changing interests and needs of the time.

LATEST role of the Simsbury, Conn., schoolboard is that of landlord. Recently the board bought a rambling old Colonial house, converting the first floor into a kindergarten and the second into teachers' apartments. In the all-electric kitchen the teachers pool their culinary efforts and their funds in any way they wish. Income from the apartments takes care of operating both the teacherage and the kindergarten.

The Board Should Set the Pace

JOSEPH G. HIGGINS

In School Management

I HAVE always felt, and I still feel, that teachers should maintain and strengthen the professional type of organization as opposed to unions patterned after the manner of organized labor. However, the net effect of direct opposition to teachers' unions as such is to add strength to their cause. It seems to me rather that boards of education should be asking: "Why do teachers unionize? What are the causes in the school system and in the profession which have driven them to seek other than professional means for the accomplishment of purposes which they deem worthy?"

Despite the recent wave of strikes and labor-management difficulties, certain industries operated in war and in peace without major labor disputes. When these constructive examples of goodwill are examined, it frequently stands out that the employer has maintained confidence and morale by initiating salary policies designed to keep pace with the trends of the times in the matter of pay levels and related services to employes. It seems that boards of education can learn that there is a very substantial morale value to be derived from taking the initiative in salary studies. If the chief responsibility of a board is to study and finally determine the controlling policies of a school system, it has an obligation to take the initiative in continuing salary studies which are tuned to the needs and potentialities of the schools rather than to the personal needs of the teachers.

Joseph G. Higgins is President of the Elizabeth, New Jersey, Board of Education. Reported from School Management, *XVI (February, 1947), pp. 2, 7.*

It frequently happens, however, that teachers take the first step toward salary improvement. They contact labor unions, parent-teacher associations, and civic groups, asking for support largely on sentimental and emotional grounds. The essential facts and the important professional considerations are lost in the process of feeling sorry for the poor teachers. Finally the board of education is forced into action, sometimes against its better judgment. Basic inequities are lost sight of in the general upward trend of salaries; and even after the adjustments become effective, these inequities remain to plague the board and disrupt the morale of the teaching staff.

How much better it would be for a board of education to set the pace in these discussions, to direct attention to controlling facts and principles, to insist on the correction of obvious inequities, and to hammer home the professional

principles which stimulate teachers to do a better job.

A board of education has a responsibility for attracting young people into the profession as well as for holding them in the schools. Well-trained young teachers are usually assigned to their positions at minimum salaries. Undoubtedly, minimum salaries should be much higher than they are now, since just when these young people are growing most rapidly in their profession and taking on family responsibilities, they have the smallest income of their professional lives. Perhaps the first few increments, especially those following immediately after the establishment of tenure, should be substantially larger than at present. Moreover, the efforts of the board of education to do something about this critical problem should be widely publicized to the end that young people will be encouraged by the fact that salary conditions are improving.

Closely related to the problem of teacher recruitment is the problem of continuing professional development. I share the administrator's fear of "course grabbers," but I am also convinced that proper guidance by the supervisory and administrative staff can make the taking of additional professional training of inestimable value to the schools and to the teachers themselves. I should like to propose an immediate financial award for the achievement of the next higher academic milestone or degree. Let it be known that on the first of the next month following the achievement of the degree the annual rate of pay goes up—say $150 or $200—and let the subsequent annual increment proceed from this newly established rate.

Teaching is a profession and in salary planning it must always be considered as such. A board of education should give close attention to the standards for judging and selecting teachers. Minimum salaries in the various categories should be high enough to attract the best. Supervisory relationships should be harmonized with the objectives of continuing service in the school system. Maximum salaries should be high enough to offer security and should not be so remote in years from beginning salaries as to offer no incentive. Retirement provisions should be designed to produce the most in teaching service while teachers are active and the most in security and comfort when teachers retire. The best professional advice should be employed before action on salaries becomes final.

All of these professional purposes can best be served if the board of education initiates salary studies. The issues are too important to allow a policy of drift. Salary policies should not grow from the single or combined efforts of well-intentioned pressure groups.

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How Many Pupils Are Failed?

J. B. STROUD

In the Elementary School Journal

A CASUAL reading of the reports and documents that have found their way into journals and books gives the impression, probably justifiably, that there has been a reduction in the percentage of failures during the last 40 or 50 years. But do we know, even with any close approximation, how many children fail in the public elementary schools today? If we ask what the *annual* rate of failure is (meaning, here, nonpromotion), we can expect to discover an approximate answer, which would probably be around 7 or 8 percent on the average.

Wide variation is found from school system to school system, however. Hollis Caswell, for instance, found that the rate for 37 cities, within the years 1930-32, varied from 2.3 to 16.7 percent, the median being 8 percent. Failure also varies from grade to grade. Caswell found the average for the 37 cities to be 15 percent in grade 1B, 10 percent in grade 2B, and from 4 to 7 percent in the higher grades. It is significant that while the *rate of failure decreases from grade one to grade six, the number of children who have failed increases from grade to grade.* A considerable proportion of pupils who fail do so more than once. From a psychological standpoint, and from an administrative standpoint also, it is important to know how many

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pupils are failed at some time during the course of their elementary-school training. The rate of failure surely must be much higher than 7 or 8 percent.

It might be a legitimate procedure to add the percentages for the various grades and then make adjustments for repeated failures if the percentage of failing pupils who fail two, three, or four times could be ascertained from the data already available. Something may also be said in favor of taking data on over-ageness as a tentative basis for estimating the percentages of pupils failed. There are two sources of error, however, in such a procedure. In the first place, some pupils are retarded for reasons other than failure, such as entering school at an advanced chronological age or enforced discontinuance of school for a year or more. In the second place, some pupils may fail for one or more semesters and yet be in normal grades for their ages. It is difficult to determine to what extent these two factors cancel each other. Where retardation data are used, the percentages should be based on the pupils who have

finished the last grade of the period under investigation. Otherwise, we obtain a figure that is too low to show the total number of pupils retarded by the time they complete the period of schooling under investigation because all cases of retardation have not yet occurred.

Dennis Cooke, in analyzing school reports for 1908-28, found the mean percentage of retardation to be 30. This is an average, however, of grades one through eight. His own data show that the percentage of retardation is much lower in the early than in the later grades.

For a sampling of 7668 sixth-grade pupils, J. R. Crawford found that 35.3 percent were reckoned to be over-age and that 41.6 percent had made less than normal progress. Eight hundred fifty-five had required 13 or 14 semesters to complete 12 semesters' work; 361 had required 19 or more semesters. Gustaf Freden found that of 5086 pupils enrolled in grade six, 27.4 percent were over-age. Of the 2932 pupils that had completed 11, and only 11, semesters of work, 25.7 percent had required more than 11 semesters in which to do so. Eugene Skinner has examined the cumulative-record cards of 1586 pupils who had been in the Omaha schools from grade one through the beginning of grade seven. Of this number, 21.3 percent had experienced failure one or more times, 29 percent having failed more than once. It is interesting to note that the annual rate of failure of this group, based on total number of pupil failures, is 7.1 percent.

This method still does not give a complete picture. Nevertheless, percentage of over-ageness comes much closer to the actual number of pupils failed than does the average annual rate of failure. The ratio of annual rate of failure to the percentage of different pupils failed will, of course, vary from one population to another. Assuming that the average annual rate of failure is 7 or 8 percent, it is seen that the number of pupils actually failed is three or four times the annual rate.

Actually, in practically all investigations on pupil failure, the results are based on nonpromotion data. Psychologically, the effect of repetition required because a pupil has not been present enough of the school year to complete the work is not the same as the repetition occasioned by his doing unsatisfactory work when present. There are probably many instances in which protracted absence and poor work are joint causes of nonpromotion.

While maintaining that failure of promotion is an undesirable experience, the problem cannot be solved by the simple expedient of deciding to do away with nonpromotion. However, there is little to show that, in general, pupils who are required to repeat a grade attain much greater mastery through repetition or that their progress in subsequent grades is made appreciably more sure. On the other hand,

there are some unhappy experiences occasioned by passing a slow-learning pupil on with his grade. In the intermediate grades he may become completely lost. Fortunately we are not faced with a choice between these two evils. We may provide, under some form of special education, or otherwise, a program adapted to the abilities and thus to the special needs of pupils who make slow progress. In this program there need not be any failure of promotion or embarrassment occasioned by inability to comprehend what is going on. There will, of course, be unfavorable comparisons as a consequence of membership in such a group. Even so, the slow-learning pupil stands to achieve better emotional adjustment in this kind of program.

Education in Australia

PRIMARY education is compulsory between the ages of 6 and 14. Special attention is given to providing good instruction for children in remote rural districts; and where schools cannot be established, the government provides correspondence instruction.

The system of secondary education is more complex. Ordinary courses at secondary schools prepare for professional work at the universities. Technical colleges offer instruction in trade; advanced scientific, engineering, and architectural subjects; and in art and domestic sciences. In some areas, schools of mines give courses to prepare for that occupation. Both mining and technical schools hold night classes for the benefit of young people who must work during the day.

In addition, each state conducts agricultural colleges, each of which operates its own farm in order to give students practical experience in farming.

A generous system of scholarships, bursaries, and "free places" makes it possible for the brilliant child of poor parents to secure a professional education without undue hardship. In 1943 the government established an allocation system in Australian universities so as to insure sufficient trained personnel both during the war and the immediate postwar period. A measure of financial assistance was made available to students in medicine, dentistry, engineering, science, and veterinary science, and to a lesser degree to above-average students in arts, law, commerce, economics, and similar subjects.

Children and the Comics

MAY HILL ARBUTHNOT

In Elementary English

THE cause most frequently given for children's desertion of books is the comic strip. Let's take a look at this very popular scapegoat.

Sterling North tried to rouse parents and teachers to "band together to break the 'comic' magazine." On May 8, 1940, in a stirring broadside in the *Chicago Daily News* entitled "A National Disgrace," he made the statement that ten million copies of these magazines are sold monthly—lurid, "sex-horror serials," depending for their appeal "upon mayhem, murder, torture, abduction—often with a child as the victim." Since this blazing invective, which was widely quoted in schools and churches throughout the country, the sale of comic magazines has doubled.

Comic strip magnates gravely trace the history of the comic strip from the caveman; they write about their own wares in terms of art, literature, and psychiatry. They modestly admit that 100,000,000 Americans can't be wrong in reading the comics, and sum it all up by labeling them "America's most popular mental vitamin, the wish-fulfilling picture story."

It is decidedly important to ask why young America is reading the comics and liking them and to ponder briefly their place in children's reading. Following the children's favorite characters in the last ten years, their great variety and constant changes in subject matter appeal are evident. Among the different classifications are:

Funnies.—While the scholarly creators of comics are discussing learnedly on the catharsis of the emotions, it might be well for them to remember the catharsis of laughter. It has been years since the children have laughed, long and loud, over their comics.

Animal heroes.—Animal cartoons remain amusing. Walt Disney's animals try just the cheeky impossible things a child would like to do; but unlike the child, they are never entirely suppressed. These animal heroes are fun and they are childlike.

Adventures, real and fantastic.—Office workers traveling toward their desks, business men facing the day's anxieties, children trudging toward flash cards and spelling lessons pause to look at adventure strips and escape momentarily their sense of dull routine. This is a release from tensions or anxieties

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and may be refreshing provided the adventures run properly.

Horrors and torture are introduced into the comic strip less frequently than they used to be, but they still occur. Identifying themselves with their favorite character, children suffer acutely from such terrors. They should not have to suffer defeat in their dream world, which is valuable precisely because it offers them relief from anxieties. These are deplorable reading material for children and youth.

Detective stories.—In the last five years crime and detective comics have been on the gain. Like the radio serials, the comics justify their crime atmosphere by telling us repeatedly that in the end the criminal always pays and pays. This sounds all right, but we agree that it is not well to use the old fairy tales if the atmosphere is predominantly one of bloodshed, trickery, terror, with only a brief proportion of the tale dedicated to the demonstration that crime does not pay.

War.—As we might expect, the war period was marked by war comics of every variety. Cops and robbers became soldiers and saboteurs.

Romance.—The love interest is usually slight and mild—mostly it is a mere cog in the plot; but occasionally the sex appeal is fairly obvious. These are probably not too good for adolescents, but unfortunately there is still more salacious material available such as chained women captives with the threat or actual use of the lash. These are most undesirable in their suggestion of sadism.

Educational comics.—Several series of educational comics have been launched. The "True Comics" series selects men and women from science, social service, and public life, and relates in graphic style their childhood adventures, youthful struggles, and mature achievements. Another series is devoted to briefing the classics.

About the retelling of the classics there are some interesting questions. Do they send the children back to the original or do they spoil his taste for the source? Unfortunately, such books as *Moby Dick, Ivanhoe,* and the Bible are hard to read. It is quite probable that poor readers will continue to prefer the simplified form. This is the only justification for these crudely illustrated, badly stated versions of great and good books.

Other criticisms are on a psychological basis. Lauretta Bender says: "So far corrective tendencies in comic writing from censors, self-appointed or otherwise, have tended to sterilize the comics as a means of satisfying the psychological needs of children. To remove fantasy (as embodied in 'Superman') or to reduce comics to the true and real (as in 'True Comics') tends to make them more threatening and productive of anxiety, because they offer no solution to the problem of aggression in the world."

Here is the psychiatrist, the doc-

tor, speaking. The average layman's reaction to these educational comics is one of utter boredom.

Now, what to do about the comics? Their language and their art is crude; the paper and general format are about as poor as possible; in most of the strips the printing constitutes a major eyestrain for both young eyes and old, while the content of the plots ranges from amusing or fantastic to banal or suggestive or downright deplorable. Still the children read them. Nothing anxious parents or scornful librarians and teachers can do or say is going to stop them. Perhaps wisdom lies in a middle course, recognizing their contribution, making some use of them, but seeing also that children have good reading material at their level.

A bond of common interest.—The first reason for recognizing the comics is that prohibition and taboos have generally the opposite effect of heightening interest and promoting a secret determination to read them at all costs. Be calm about the comics, assume a sympathetic attitude, read a few of them yourself so that you can encourage the better ones with the prestige of your interest, and you will find that you have a cheerful bond of conversation with your child. To reject completely the daily reading of the bulk of our students is to remove ourselves still further from their world. The children don't take the comics seriously, but pick them up for momentary entertainment.

Comics and reading readiness.—On the plus side, for thousands of our children who never see a book in their homes, the comic strip is the first and only approach to reading. Four- and five-year-olds commandeer some adult to read and reread the comics to them; then they pore over them with fascinated eagerness. They soon learn to read pictures with skill, and their picture-reading technique carries over easily to such fine books as Marjorie Flack's *Angus* stories and their books and preprimers. If young children have good books, then we need not worry too much about the comics.

Uses in school.—With older children we see no excuse for "Superman" readers or English classes based on a serious study of comic strips. If along with their good readers, along with the fine and significant books we are introducing them to in English, the children wish to show their comics occasionally, or tell about them, certainly we should not snub their contributions but recognize them cheerfully. Sometimes children wish to show these magazines because they are the only books they own. Then perhaps you can use Wanda Gag's stories, Virginia Burton's, or Marjorie Flack's with the youngest children, and such books as *Five Hundred Hats for Bartholomew Cubbins* with the oldest to show how other artists have made books in the comic-strip way. For older children, developing their own comic-strip characters and plots

would be an admirable way of developing a more critical attitude toward this material.

Emotional release.—Finally, let's keep our adult eyes open to the dangers and possibilities of these powerful influences on juvenile emotions. Let's protest the sadistic, sexy, or too violent pictures and plots, while at the same time we emphasize casually the crime-does-not-pay theme. The triumphant heroes, these children and youths who overcome every obstacle, provide a healthy catharsis for the emotions. The child, trying to function in a world of adults, is always in a position of inferiority; so these youthful heroes become symbols of power through which he begins to feel adequate, secure, even triumphant. Such feelings of adequacy are a needful part of growing up, and fantasy helps the child when life and the omnipresent adults frustrate him. It is important, then, that we should not laugh at his symbols.

There is probably little cause to worry about children and their comic strips as long as they are also enjoying good books. The comic addicts who should worry us begin to emerge about fifth-grade level. They are frequently the extremely poor readers who are unable to handle independently the kind of books which they might enjoy. They turn to the comics, find exciting stories which are easy to read, and these restore their confidence and selfrespect. Their excessive devotion to these magazines is often an attempt to escape unpleasant reality. Continuous reading of these lurid picture tales should be regarded as a symptom; the cause should be sought; and every effort should be made to get the child back on the right track. Easy books which he can read and enjoy, and remedial reading work to patch up his reading wounds are both indicated for children who are afraid of books. For the child who is running away from himself, a feeling of success is essential. He must experience the joy of achievement in some field, of contributing to the group, and of belonging because he can contribute. Our chief concern must always be with the happiness and sense of achievement which every child needs. Devotion to a few lurid comics may be merely symptons and probably won't turn the scale for better or worse in a child's development if he is armed with strength from other sources.

Children's Fears

ANCIENT bugaboos continue to terrorize the minds of children much more than those they get from the radio or comic strip. The majority of rural children fear animals most, while prevalent among nonanimal fears are fire, storms, darkness, and fear of failure in school, according to Karl Pratt.

Let's Topple the White Tower

PHILIP R. JENKINS

In the Clearing House

THE people of the United States are probably the most persistent wishful thinkers in the world. To prove it one has only to recall the period immediately preceding the last holocaust when we scrapped our navy, refused to do anything about an army, and anchored our ships bow to stern at Pearl Harbor. But now the days of wishful thinking are over. We have got to yank our heads out of the sand and admit that the enemy is clawing up our back and that he'll soon be knifing our jugular vein.

And who is this enemy? All the problems that spread themselves over the front page of the newspaper, the impasses that present their blunt walls to our minds from the pages of the better magazines, the tangled mess of facts and figures that pours from our radios. Are we going to have another depression? What's the matter with Molotov? What causes race riots in this country?

What do I know about all these men up for election? What is my local city government up to and why? Where can I find out? I'm a voting citizen. I'm supposed to know — sociology, psychology, economics, history, politics, finance, unionism, propaganda, China, the Netherland Indies, cartels, Arabs, Jews, Christianity — and meanwhile raise a family and earn a living.

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The whole thing is impossible. Let me hide my head in the sand. Something will happen; somehow somebody somewhere will straighten these things out. But the blunt answer is: somebody won't — not if we wish to preserve our democratic way of life. To preserve that, the individual must start thinking and thinking hard.

As an alternative, there hovers in the background the awful shadow of the mushroom cloud of the atomic bomb.

What can we do about it in education? First, I think we must wake up to the fact that the children now in the schools are going to live in a world we never dreamed of even in our dizziest moments. I recall with shame now the boys and girls I sent off to war with their heads full of such things as "The Charge of the Light Brigade," a glorification of war; I remember with bitterness the time we wasted in class on silly dramatic comedies, on frivolous essays.

I do not mean to say that gentle arts of peace are not important; that the cultivation of leisure and beauty is of no value. Such is not

the issue. The question is whether we are going to work out some kind of world peace or perish, while the victor hurls into our grave after us all the gentle arts of peace.

On what the teachers of other subjects may do about this situation, I must be indefinite. But I can say something about the teaching of English. Most of us English teachers hesitate to throw out *Ivanhoe* or "Snowbound" because we would have to do some thinking ourselves if we began teaching the reading of modern problems. So many of us don't know what to do in the classroom if we have a book or a magazine article without all the paraphernalia of notes and questions for discussion.

Let us consider several changes we should institute:

1. A systematic teaching of vocabulary. One reason our students fail to read the newspapers and the magazines is that they don't know the words. The only reading they can understand is found in the comic books.

2. Let's drop the illusion that high-school students can write the familiar essay. If we will only admit the facts we must concede that the only people who write a good essay are people who have had long experience with life and ideas. They have had neither. Writing familiar essays merely trains them to be loquacious without substance.

3. Let's train them to think. Now I admit that few, if any, high-school students can think or should be expected to think in the creative sense, and I admit that few of us adults can think. But we have got to learn. How to teach adults this unfamiliar art is still a virgin field. One can only suggest at this time that respect for facts is part of thinking, as is the ability to see relationships. Then, too, the thinker must abolish his prejudices, must examine his own platitudes. Thinking also involves the ability to use the imagination.

4. Even at the cost of much money we should reform our reading program. Our nostalgic yearning to teach the classics we enjoyed as children is a threat to the future's children. Most of us have read enough to know that the writers of each age repeat for the new age what has been said before, in language and in situations suitable to the new age.

When a modernization of the reading program is proposed, the guardians of our democracy, of course, immediately rush to arms. They fear that the reading of modern political and economic essays will give bias to the minds of students. They fear that a special-interest group will seize control of the reading program. Such people have a point.

5. Let us begin to preach a doctrine that the ability to read, to understand, to know how to listen to speeches, to be acquainted with what goes on in the world is a responsibility of all of us.

On the Validity of Educational Tests

PHILIP J. RULON

In the Harvard Educational Review

VALIDITY is usually described as the extent to which a test measures what it is purported to measure. A more natural question of validity is whether the test does the work it is employed to do. The validity of a test may be high for one use and low for another, and the whole question of validity boils down to the question of whether the test does what we are trying to do with it.

In trying to decide upon the probable utility of a test for a given purpose we can ask: Is this the material we are trying to teach our children to handle and is this the way we are trying to get them to handle it? Answering such questions has been called determining the "face validity" of the test. There can be no more conclusive proof of validity than the answering of such questions. On the other hand, there may be other good proofs.

These are needed when the materials and processes of the test are *not* identically those of the objectives of instruction. A test worker can frequently suggest ways of cutting down costs and time budgets by using selected or even modified items—not items representative of the materials and processes which form the objectives of instruction, but items selected on the basis of having shown themselves effective in discriminating between children who do well the required operations on the specified materials and those who do not.

We have, then, two general ways of asking about the validity of achievement tests, one growing from the other. The first is: Are the materials of this test and the processes called for on these materials the same things and processes we are trying to teach the children? The other is: If they are not, do we have evidence that scores on this test go hand in hand with those we would obtain with a test in which the materials and processes were the same as those we are trying to teach? The direct observation of the things and processes which are the aims of instruction is the final proof of validity as compared with the correlation coefficient of validity, which is at best secondary.

The direct "operations upon materials" approach to any new test problem is usually the most profitable. In any case, any simpler and less direct test must await a technique of making observations to *validate* such a test, so a direct attack on the problem is called for

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first. A series of anecdotal reports, for example, often tells more about the student than a personality test does. This should suggest that the proper approach to the study of personality is the observation of behavior. One aspect of personality can certainly be observed directly long before it can be reduced to any indirect paper-and-pencil technique.

As another example, there is a need in the schools for a test to show how the individual handles his personal relationships with others. But high etiquette *knowledge* scores will not guarantee proper *conduct*.

The task of the test builder is always to supply the efficient technique, either direct or indirect, which will serve the purposes of the more cumbersome and expensive direct observation. What he produces may have no appearance whatever of connection with what we are trying to get at. For instance, the free-association technique might be successful in distinguishing courteous people from discourteous ones, but nobody would ever be able to guess it by looking at the test.

It is sometimes possible to get a better measure by means of a test of less validity provided the less valid test is more reliable.

A certain tendency to generalize, and to encounter difficulties immediately on generalization, infects our thinking about achievement and achievement tests. We say it makes a lot of difference whether a Latin teacher considers it his job merely to establish in his pupils the best possible proficiency in the use of Latin or whether he conceives Latin as the instrumentality for improving the general personal and cultural make-up of the individual. From this we proceed to adopt the general personal and cultural make-up of the individual as the goal of Latin teaching. But imagine the reaction of the Latin teacher when his pupils are presented with a so-called "Latin Achievement Test" which clearly assesses, not Latin at all, but "the general personal and cultural make-up of the student."

Changes are being made rapidly in the curriculum and objectives of the school. There is frequent demand for the testing of the "newer objectives," and frequent complaints are made concerning the efficacy of widely used tests in evaluating progress. It is felt that "obviously valid" tests should be available in all important fields of instruction, an obviously valid test being again one in which the material used constitutes the objectives of instruction and in which the operation required is the operation which the school is trying to train the student to perform.

Such a test must always be the criterion by which any not obviously valid test is validated. The obviously valid test is its own criterion.

The 6-4-4 Plan

WILLIAM C. RUEDIGER

In School and Society

RECENTLY an educator asked: What is the demonstrated superiority of the 6-3-3 plan of organization over the traditional 8-4 plan? The question is one in which I have been interested for more than 40 years. However, in my opinion, the 6-3-3 plan, although a step in the right direction, does not go far enough. It should be superseded by the 6-4-4 plan. The 6-4-4 plan gives a better opportunity for the efficient administration of the curriculum and it fits in better with the mental and physical development of youth.

In an educational ladder for a democracy, only three stages can be clearly distinguished: (1) elementary education; (2) secondary, general, or liberal education; and (3) higher, including professional, education

The function of elementary education is fairly clear. It is, on the curriculum side, to develop the school arts, such as reading, writing, spelling, drawing, and calculating, together with the basic concepts of literature, art, music, history, social living, and the natural sciences. On the child side, we need to be aware of the various aspects of personality development, but the two sides are obviously closely interlocked.

The basic function of general education is to give the growing generation an understanding and appreciation of the achievements of mankind. It is on this stage that we have been least successful, largely because the traditional 8-4 organization does not fit the ends to be achieved. Our eight-year elementary school is a hangover from our early history when social classes were taken for granted and it was the finishing school for the common people. It was meant to include some contentful education in addition to the tools and fundamentals we are now assigning to the six-year elementary school. Six years should be ample to gain an initial grasp of the objectives of elementary education, a grasp that should be strengthened through use in the next step, but this stage is so chaotically organized that we have seriously fallen short of gaining the ends that logically belong to it.

It is generally granted that there is little room for electives in the elementary stage of education; its curriculum is made up of tools and fundamentals that everyone needs; but the same is essentially true of the general-culture stage. Here the curriculum is made up of

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the fundamentals of our civilized life, no one of which can well be omitted by anyone aspiring to see life whole. Data that I gathered 20 years ago revealed that our high schools and colleges as then administered were leaving large gaps. Out of several hundred senior college and graduate students, 35 percent had omitted physics; 32 percent, chemistry; 63 percent, art appreciation; 64 percent, music appreciation; 4.6 percent, American history; 11 percent, ancient history. On the other hand, 14 percent had taken introductory physics in both high school and college; 19 percent had repeated chemistry; 42 percent, American history; 23 percent, ancient history. They did this usually at the cost of omitting other highly desirable subjects. The situation may be better now, but the administration of the curriculum is still highly defective.

The general-culture stage is covered by grades 7-14 inclusive. This stage is broken up into segments that are now allotted either to the elementary school, the high school, and the college; or to the junior high school, the senior high school, and the junior college. But if we are to avoid educational blind spots in the minds of our leaders, this stage must be treated as a unit. For administrative convenience it may be divided into two sections, calling one the high school and the other the college, but the single function of the subdivisions must not be lost sight of. The 6-3-3 plan, although a good beginning, does not go far enough in this direction.

A point advanced in favor of the 6-4-4 plan is that it fits better the stages of child development than the 8-4 plan. In the 7th and 8th grades many children enter the period of adolescence and so no longer mix well with the younger children. The 6-4-4 plan places the younger children with their kind in the elementary school, the early adolescents with their kind in the high school, and later adolescents with their kind in the college. Professional and higher education may then be started in the early period of adulthood.

Since the efficient administration of the curriculum falls right in with these periods of development, the 6-4-4 plan seems to have everything in its favor as compared with the 8-4 plan. This evidence is objective as far as it goes, but I readily admit that it might go farther. We need to operate the 6-4-4 plan for at least 25 years in widely scattered sections of our country. Then if enough places had retained the 8-4 plan we could get comparable evidence, but this evidence would have to be sought largely outside of subject-matter tests.

ENROLMENT at the University of Cincinnati College of Law is 2354 percent larger than the wartime low of 13 students a year or so ago. Of the present enrolment, 190 are freshmen.

★ With Education in Washington ★

EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

Which Way Prices?

The school worker's dollar should be able to buy more goods in June than it did in December. This at least is the prediction of government economists who watch the inflation spiral. They say that a break in the upward price pressure is almost certain by summer.

Within the past several weeks evidence has piled up to support the economists' prediction.

First, prices of cotton, lumber, oils, pig iron, and other raw materials are reported to be at their peak. Because stocks of these materials are now accumulating in warehouses, price declines are expected.

Second, major manufacturers — Ford, Plymouth, International Harvester — have cut prices on their products.

Third, people are refusing to buy at high prices not only such luxury items as furs, jewelry, and liquor, but even such staples as men's shirts when they are priced at $3.95 or $4.10.

Sales resistance is one of the most important causes of the coming price readjustment, federal experts say. And this readjustment is due by June or July, unless — and that should be written UNLESS — a new series of wage demands by large labor unions upsets all present trends.

Economy Measures

Educational activities in Washington are feeling the effects of the Congressional economy drive — now at its peak. The drive began in the House of Representatives. Whether it will be supported by the Senate may not be known until June 30. Meanwhile, here are some achievements of the economy-minded Representatives:

1. College facilities.—The House of Representatives denied a request for $20,000,000 to help colleges set up temporary buildings on campuses for classroom use. Rep. Taber, chairman of the House appropriations committee, said that the colleges have already been given $80,000,000 for this purpose. His committee, said Rep. Taber, is "appalled" at the cost involved in tearing down the buildings, moving the units to campuses, and setting them up again. Washington officials admit the cost of relocating buildings is high, but claim there is no alternative in view of the large veteran enrolments.

2. Office of Education salaries.—The House refused to grant Commissioner of Education Studebaker an increase of $473,700 for enlarging his federal service.

3. Apprenticeship training.—Denied by the House also was a request for $528,000 to expand apprentice-training activities.

4. School lunch.—The House appropriations committee refused to make a deficiency allotment for school lunches. A hard battle on

the House floor, however, resulted in an appropriation of $6,000,000 for this purpose. Friends of school lunches claim that at least $15,000,000 is needed to keep school lunches going until June 30.

5. Counseling information.—The entire U. S. Labor Department program of providing counseling and job-market information for youths will be wiped out because the House denied funds for salaries of federal experts on occupational information.

Some of the funds may be restored by the Senate when it begins debate on the 1948 education-and-labor-appropriations bill. But in the meantime, plans for curtailing educational services are already moving ahead.

WOTP Still Lacks Members

The proposed world organization for the teaching profession (WOTP) still lacks four members (as of time of going to press) before it can become a reality. To date, teacher groups of Switzerland, Luxembourg, Poland, Greece, Canada, and the U. S. have ratified the draft constitution.

Washington WOTP representatives are not all discouraged over the organization's slow progress. They promise "new developments soon." They say that the first job of teachers the world over is to strengthen their ranks within their own countries. Only then will they be able to think of world professional objectives.

Federal Aid

That oft-repeated Capitol show—hearings on federal aid-to-education bills—is once again under way. Under consideration at this time is a group of bills introduced in the Senate, including Senator Taft's S.472.

More eagerly awaited by federal-aid proponents are hearings on the House side of the Capitol. These are expected to begin in May. At that time, the House subcommittee on education will hear testimony on some 15 school-aid measures. Chief attention will be focused on a measure introduced in the House by Rep. McCowen of Ohio. This measure is considered important because its author is the chairman of the powerful House subcommittee on education—a group which in the past has smothered every federal-aid bill which has come before it. The McCowen measure, like the one introduced by Sen. Taft, calls for a floor of $40 a year for the education of every child in the country.

National Archives Inventory

The National Archives, one of the great storehouses of information and culture in the country, recently took stock of its resources. It came up with traditional press-agent figures: Its records would fill 2,500,000 four-drawer file cabinets. Placed side by side, these cabinets would stretch for over 700 miles.

No publicity is needed, however, to stimulate the use of Archives' resources by college professors, historians, graduate students, and textbook writers. Now that the war is

over, scholars are once more coming in large numbers to the marble Archives' building to carry on historical and general research. Here they find such assorted items as Grant's letter written in 1864 saying that he proposes "to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer" and Hitler's marriage certificate, captured by our soldiers in 1945.

Textbook writers find here rare photographs and drawings detailing growth of our railroads, aviation, and industry. One college obtained for its geology classes a series of pictures showing the formation of icebergs. The University of Washington sent a representative to the National Archives to select important materials on the political, economic, and social life of the region.

Schoolmen interested in becoming better acquainted with this national institution should write to Solon Buck, National Archives, Washington 25, D. C.

What They Think

Unpublicized but vital are many of the views on education of outstanding national lawmakers:

Rep. Robert Twyman, Republican from Illinois, believes that when the U. S. aids a foreign country—whether by loan, food, or military pact—the assistance should be accompanied by an educational program stressing American democracy to the people who get our aid.

Rep. Leroy Johnson, Republican of California, believes that school buildings and recreational facilities which the federal government has set up in war-swollen communities to take care of war workers' children should be turned over to the state or town governments.

Rep. John Taber, Republican from New York, does not think that "it is necessary for the federal government to provide children with (school) lunches." He emphasizes: "I think the locality should do it."

Rep. Andresen, Republican from Minnesota, wonders if the Office of Education isn't paying too much attention to the "work of international affairs," and neglecting "the affairs of the American people." He refers to the fact that some Office of Education staff members (1) evaluate credentials of foreign students and (2) sometimes go abroad at the request of the Army or Navy to study school problems of Germany and Japan.

Fellowships for Psychiatrists

Because "we need three times as many psychiatrists as we now have," the United States Public Health Service is asking Congress for $2,000,000 for next year to finance 600 fellowships—150 each in psychiatry, psychology, psychiatric nursing, and psychiatric social-work fields. Grants will be available for graduate work only and will pay up to $10 per day.

Note: The National Institute of Mental Health, created by the last Congress, is still in the planning stage. Construction will probably not begin before some time next year.

Educational News

RECENT DEATHS:

Donald DuShane, executive secretary of the Commission for the Defense of Democracy of the NEA, March 11. . . . **Florence Marshall,** first woman in the United States to develop and promote trade education for girls and founder of the Boston Trade School, January 27. . . . **Bert Allen Nash,** professor of education at the University of Kansas, February 18. . . . **Kurt Lewin,** director of the research center for group dynamics at Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Febrauary 12. . . . **William E. Shaw,** president of Illinois Wesleyan University. . . . **Nelson L. Greene,** editor of *Educational Screen,* January 30.

CHANGES IN STATE DEPARTMENTS:

Ben H. Watts succeeds **Clement T. Malan** as Indiana State Superintendent of Public Instruction. . . . **Philip S. Waldeck,** former lieutenant in the Navy, has been appointed first state supervisor of industrial arts in Ohio. . . .**Ethel L. Cornell,** associate research supervisor, New York State Education Department, has been granted a 90-day leave of absence to assist the Japanese and Korean education officials in developing a handbook on test construction for Japanese and Korean teachers. **Frederick J. Moffitt,** chief, bureau of instructional supervision, New York State Education Department, has accepted a three-month appointment as advisor to the United States Military Government on courses in social studies.

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES:

J. Eugene Smith, of Willimantic, Conn., State Teachers College, has been appointed to act as president until a successor to **George H. Shafer,** who resigned on account of ill health, can be found. . . . **Joseph Lindsey Henderson,** professor of secondary education, University of Texas, has retired. . . . **Maynard Bemis** has been named assistant professor of education at the University of Wyoming. . . . Succeeding **Harry A. Peters,** who will retire soon, as headmaster of the University School at Shaker Heights, Cleveland, Ohio, is **Harold L. Cruikshank,** director of the Wilkes-Barre Day School. . . . **John C. Robertson** has been appointed associate professor of education at Ohio State University. **Charles C. Cowell** has resigned as associate professor in the University School, Ohio State University. . . . **Ray W. Barker,** former commanding general of the American Zone of Occupation, will succeed the late **Lt. Col. D. Percy McCarthy** as president of the Manlius, N. Y., school. . . . **John J. Tigert,** president of the University of Florida, will retire soon. . . . **John Manville Sayles,** president of the New York State College for Teachers at Albany, has retired because of ill health. **Milton G. Nelson,** dean, has been acting as president. . . . **Arthur Fort Harman,** president of Alabama College, Montevallo, has announced that he will retire September 1. . . . **Richard M. Drake,** professor of education, University of Buffalo, has

been appointed assistant dean, College of Arts and Sciences. . . . **Ross L. Mooney** and **Earl Anderson** are serving as acting deans of the College of Education, Ohio State University, during the leave of absence of **Donald Cottrell** on a War Department mission in Germany. . . . Succeeding **Orville E. Sink** when he retires as head of the department of industrial arts at Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Ind., is **Fred J. Schmidt**, associate professor in the department who is now being promoted to the rank of full professor. . . . **Harlan L. Hagman** has been named associate professor of school administration, Drake University College of Education. . . . **Thomas R. Cole**, professor of school administration, University of Washington, Seattle, has gone to Japan, where he will advise Japanese and Korean education officials on methods of accreditation for secondary schools and colleges. . . . **Kenneth B. White**, who has been serving as educational-services officer and personnel officer for the New York District in the Immigration and Naturalization Service of the U. S. Department of Justice, has returned to his position as dean of New Jersey State Teachers College at Paterson. . . . **Frank M. Fletcher, jr.**, has been named to succeed **Harold A. Edgerton** as director of occupational-opportunities services, Ohio State University at Columbus. . . . **Irving Robbins** has been named assistant professor of education, University of Cincinnati.

MISCELLANEOUS:

Among those who have recently gone to Germany to act as educational consultants to the American Military Government Office are **Mary Dabney Davis**, of the U. S. Office of Education, and **Bernice Baxter**, of the Oakland, Calif., schools. . . . **Hubert Mott** has resigned as superintendent of the Pleasantville, N. Y., public schools to become director of children's work for the *Christian Herald* . . . **George Tomlinson**, Minister of Works in Great Britain, has been appointed to succeed **Ellen Wilkinson** as Minister of Education. . . . **Harold A. Engel**, of Wisconsin, has been elected president of the National Association of Educational Broadcasters. . . . **I. Keith Tyler**, head of the department of radio education and director of the Ohio State University annual institute for education by radio, has been granted a leave of absence to advise the War Department on a program of educational mediums to be used in Germany. . . . **Maris M. Proffitt** has retired as assistant director of the division of secondary education, U. S. Office of Education. . . . **Galen Jones** is the new president of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. . . . **Francis G. Cornell**, chief of the U. S. Office of Education Research and Statistical Service, has been named education expert for the U. S. Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare. . . . **Bess Goodykoontz**, director of the division of elementary education,

U. S. Office of Education, is president of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development of the NEA.

SALARY prospects are beginning to look a little brighter for teachers, and new advances are being made almost weekly on the educational front. Nevada, following the lead set by California last November, recently passed legislation providing for a $2400-minimum salary for teachers of the state.

Teachers in several other states are in line for increases, too. Governor Dewey of New York has signed a bill giving teachers an emergency increase of $300, while the legislature has passed a bill providing for permanent salary schedules of from $2000 to $5125, plus service and merit increases. The West Virginia Legislature gave all teachers raises ranging from $30 to $60 per month, depending on education and experience; a $400 annual raise was granted to Delaware teachers; Idaho adopted a new salary schedule beginning at $1200 for teachers with two years of college and $1800 for those with five years.

Legislation on salary increases is still pending in several states. Both New Mexico and Montana killed bills which would give salary boosts to teachers.

AT its meeting in Atlantic City, N. J., in March, the Executive Committee for the Defense of Democracy through Education adopted a resolution saying that teachers strikes can be prevented, not by law or edict of schoolboards, but by establishment of procedures which would adequately protect the economic and professional welfare of teachers. Teachers must not be coerced into working for substandard wages with no way of making effective protest, coerced into making unsatisfactory contracts, or prevented from collective or group negotiation. Teachers must be protected in their right to negotiate without prejudice to tenure or retirement rights, stated the resolution, and during periods of negotiation, employers must not fill their positions with other teachers. It is unethical for teachers to apply for such positions. Teacher associations must have the right of representation at all local and state board of education meetings by representatives of their own choosing who shall be free to present matters of concern to the association.

TEACHERS in liberated countries of Europe and Asia are suffering many hardships, according to Dr. Reinhold Schairer, executive director of the World Education Service. Dr. Schairer has outlined a simple plan whereby every American teacher can help to keep democracy alive in Europe by sending a Friendship Package and Letter to colleagues overseas. Packages are to be no heavier than 10 pounds. They should contain articles like clothing, books, writing material, sewing kits; even smoking articles and

games are welcome. Food (coffee, tea, rice, dehydrated foods, etc.) should be packed separately. For teachers who have not the time to prepare a Friendship Package, the Teachers Good Will Service will ship a specially selected package for $5 each. A Friendship Letter should be sent with every donation or package. Designate whether for a man or a woman. Parcels not earmarked for any particular country will be sent to countries most in need of help. Packages must be sent only to: Teachers Good Will Service Warehouse, 35 East 35th Street, New York 16, N. Y.

Labels for shipping can be secured from the office of the Teachers Good Will Service, 2 West 45th Street, New York 19, N. Y. One dollar must be included for each label to help defray crating of the packages in steel stripped cases. It is important that no package be sent without labels.

Teachers Good Will Service Awards for 1947 will be awarded to universities, colleges, and schools, where the largest percentage of staff members send Friendship Packages. For further information, write the World Education Service Council, 2 West 45th Street, New York 19, N. Y.

PI LAMBDA THETA announces two awards of $400 each for significant research studies in education. An unpublished study may be submitted on any aspect of the professional problems and contributions of women, either in education or some other field. Studies may be submitted by any individual, whether or not engaged at present in educational work, or by any chapter or group of members of Pi Lambda Theta.

Three copies of the final report of the completed research study shall be submitted to the Committee on Studies and Awards by July 1, 1947. All inquiries concerning the awards and the form of the final report should be addressed to Bess Goodykoontz, chairman, Committee on Studies and Awards, c/o U. S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

May 1-2, Educational Film Library Association, Columbus, Ohio.

May 2-3, Annual Meeting, American Council on Education, Washington, D. C.

May 2-5, Institute for Education by Radio, Columbus, Ohio.

May 4-11, Religious Book Week.

May 12-15, American Association for Adult Education, West Point, N. Y.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

July 7-11, Representative Assembly, NEA, Cincinnati, Ohio.

July 14-25, Department of Classroom Teachers, NEA, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

July 14-25, Department of Elementary-School Principals, NEA, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

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KEY TO ABBREVIATIONS OF NAMES OF PERIODICALS

American Mercury—American Mercury.
Am. Teach.—American Teacher.
Arts in Childhood—Arts in Childhood.
Asia—Asia.

Br. Today—Britain Today.
B. Am. Assn. Univ. Prof.—Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors.
B. Nat. Assn. Sec. Prins.—Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals.
B. Sch. Ed. Ind. Univ.—Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University.
Bus. Ed. World—Business Education World.

Cal. J. El. Ed.—California Journal of Elementary Education
Cal. J. Sec. Ed.—California Journal of Secondary Education.
Child Study—Child Study
Childh. Ed.—Childhood Education.
Cl. Hse.—Clearing House.
Colo. Sch. J.—Colorado School Journal.

Ed. Forum— Educational Forum.
Ed. Ldrship.—Educational Leadership.
Ed. Res. Bul.—Educational Research Bulletin.
El. Engl.—Elementary English.
El. Engl. R.—Elementary English Review.
El. Sch. J.—Elementary School Journal.
Engl. J.—English Journal.

Harvard Ed. R.—Harvard Educational Review.
H. Sch. J.—High School Journal.
Higher Ed.—Higher Education.

Ill. Ed.—Illinois Education.

J. Am. Assn. Col. Reg.—Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars.
J. Am. Assn. Univ. Women—Journal of the American Association of University Women.
J. Bus. Ed.—Journal of Business Education.
J. Ed. Res.—Journal of Educational Research.
J. Ed. Soc.—Journal of Educational Sociology.
J. Health and Phys. Ed.—Journal of Health and Physical Education.
J. Inspectors of Schools of Australia—Journal of Inspectors of Schools of Australia.
J. N. E. A.—Journal of the National Education Association.
Jun. Col. J.—Junior College Journal.

Magazine Digest—Magazine Digest.
Mass. Teach.—Massachusetts Teacher.
Math. Teach.—Mathematics Teacher.
Mod. Lang. J.—Modern Language Journal.

The Nation—The Nation.
Nat. Par. Teach.—National Parent-Teacher.
Neb. Ed. J.—Nebraska Educational Journal.
N. J. Ed. R.—New Jersey Educational Review.
New York Times—New York Times.
News Let.—News Letter.
North C. Assn. Q.—North Central Association Quarterly.

Occupations—Occupations.
Ohio Sch.—Ohio Schools.

The Packet—The Packet.
Progres. Ed.—Progressive Education.

Res. Bul. N. E. A.—Research Bulletin of the National Education Association.

Sch. and Soc.—School and Society.
Sch. Bus. Affairs—School Business Affairs.
Sch. Ex.—School Executive.
Sch. Life—School Life.
Sch. Man.—School Management.
Sch. R.—School Review.
Sci. Ed.—Science Education.
Soc. Ed.—Social Education.

Talks—Talks.
Teachers Service Bulletin in Reading—Teachers Service Bulletin in Reading.
Teach. Col. Rec.—Teachers College Record.
Texas Outl.—Texas Outlook.
This Week—This Week.

Under. Child—Understanding the Child.
Univ. Mich. Sch. Ed. Bul.—University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin.

Va. J. Ed.—Virginia Journal of Education.

W. Va. Sch. J.—West Virginia School Journal.
Wisc. J. Ed.—Wisconsin Journal of Education.

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Boggess, Louise Hill. What a Sales Class! Bus. Ed. World. March, 32.
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Breslich, E. R. Outlook for Mathematics in the Secondary School. Sch. R. Apr., 21.
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Chase, W. Linwood. History for Today's Children. The Packet. Feb., 26.
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———. To Overtake and Surpass America. Asia. Dec., 34.
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Cunningham, Harry A. Lecture Demonstration versus Individual Laboratory Method in Science Education. Sci. Ed. Oct., 26.
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Better Teachers. The Nation. Nov., 1.
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Financial Aid, the Future of. American Council on Education. Financial Assistance for College Students. Feb., 45.
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Redfield, Robert. Race and Religion in Selective Admission. J. Am. Assn. Col. Reg. Oct., 1.
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Willcockson, Mary. How Ability Groups Improve Social Climate. Teachers Service Bulletin in Reading. Dec., 28.
Wingo, G. Max. The Attack on Scientific Method. Univ. Mich. Sch. Ed. Bul. Jan., 5.
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Zehrer, Frederick A. The Veteran Returns to High School. Under. Child. Apr., 49.
Zook, George F. Changing Patterns of Junior College Education. Jun. Col. J. Oct., 8.

Help for Social-Science Teachers

THE *Minneapolis Star,* under the guidance of Dr. Edgar B. Wesley and a group of 13 outstanding educators, has started a program to stimulate thinking on world news events among elementary and high-school students in Minnesota, North and South Dakota, and Wisconsin. The program consists basically of weekly news tests, mostly of the multiple-choice type, on a number of major topics of world affairs. Keyed copies of the tests are mailed to participating educators each week before the *Star* is published.

To date more than 1600 educators are taking advantage of the program. Teachers may obtain the tests without charge by writing the World Affairs Program, The *Minneapolis Star,* Minneapolis 15, Minn.

New Books in Education

American Indian Education. Evelyn C. Adams. New York: King's Crown Press, 1946. 122 pp. $2.25.

This book affords a historical survey of the various approaches to Indian education adopted by the white man from colonial times to the present. In the words of the author, it "pretends to be little more than a skeletal outline of a deeply rooted complex subject." Nevertheless, its scope should make it a very valuable source of background both for those interested in specific problems of Indian education and for those whose concern is with more general aspects of the Indian's problem.

Chapter 1 concerns "Economic Conflict and Education"; Chapter 2 discusses the "Colonial Prelude"; Chapter 3 deals with "Partial Government Responsibility (1776-1870)"; Chapter 4, "Full Federal Responsibility (1870-1921)"; Chapter 5, "Federal Responsibility Reinterpreted." Chapter 6, "Reorientation and Improvement," contains sections on types of schools, course of study, personnel, the Alaskan Indian Service, achievements in education, and Indian economic progress. Chapter 7 is headed "Problems and Outlook."

Movies That Teach. Charles F. Hoban, jr. New York: The Dryden Press, 1946. 187 pp. $2.50.

In writing this book, the author is addressing principally three groups of readers: educational administrators, producers of educational films, and visual educationalists. Mr. Hoban's personal contacts with members of these groups have acquainted him with their special problems. Moreover, extensive experience in the Army Pictorial Service of the Signal Corps, as well as an examination of research studies conducted by War Department agencies on the effectiveness of educational films, has enabled Mr. Hoban to speak authoritatively on such matters as: the measured results of training films, approaches to new film production, teaching techniques in films, distribution and film library service, conditions of use, etc.

Psychology of Childhood and Adolescence. Luella Cole and John J. B. Morgan. New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1947. 416 pp. $3.50.

This book, which is intended primarily for use in teachers colleges or in connection with combined courses in child and adolescent psychology, is a thorough and well-documented study. There are chapters devoted to physical growth, motor development, emotional growth, motivation, social growth, homes for children and adolescents, play and interests, intellectual growth, bright and dull children, language, growth in attitudes and behavior, and personality. The book also has an abundance of illustrations, tables, and charts.

How to Use a Book. E. Wayne Marjarum. New Brunswick: Rutgers University Press, 1947. 111 pp. $1.50.

The author has concentrated much interesting and practical information on using books in this brief volume. Chapters are devoted to retention, speed of reading, uses of the different parts of a book, and the use of the library. Both the inexperienced and the experienced reader should find a variety of helpful suggestions, suggestions whose validity is attested by repeated successful application in the classroom. Many of the hints, particularly those on improving speed of reading, are supplemented with helpful and stimulating sample exercises.

Teachers Are of the Master Profession

FRANKLIN BOBBITT

In the Indianapolis Star

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THAT teachers should be paid an amount that accords with the character of their labors cannot be questioned. There is no other way to attract into the profession the kind of personnel that the labors require. And only as teachers achieve and adhere to the standards of the American way of life can they know what it is, value it, and be filled with an urge to bring the growing generation to those same high and proved standards.

Money is but the key that opens the doors into the spacious American way of life. The person who does not want, and who does not vigorously strive to attain that way of living is not fitted to be a teacher of high-minded Americans. The inspiring forces that stimulate and lead in educative effort do not issue from stunted and shriveled personalities. The spirit of a population does not rise higher than the sources of its inspiration.

Education is the master profession. It is the builder of the powers of the men of all other professions. It creates the understandings of the citizens who maintain a free selfcoordinated social order. It awakens in all persons the wisdom that guides an enlightened care of the health, a wholesome family life, recreations that daily renew the spirit, the philosophic or religious outlook that maintains hope and courage, and the daily explorations of the mind that build and maintain understanding.

Above all others, education is the creative profession. It creates the powers to create the nation's vast production, distribution, and use of the magnificent array of the means of twentieth-century living. It vastly adds to the worth of men.

It may be urged that we here exaggerate the value of the teacher's work. "Are we not," it may be asked, "describing a $10,000 influence that is bought by the population for $1800?" We are describing the $10,000 influence that, under the present dismaying conditions of the world, would be cheap, very cheap, if the public would buy it, cooperate with it, and make it fully operate. We are describing the master profession that the public ought to have in its employ.

Nothing good can be had without paying its full value. Pay the price of shoddy goods and you get shoddy goods. Use wisdom in paying for superior goods and you will get superior goods.